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# RISK ASSESSMENT



U.S. Bureau of Reclamation Mid-Pacific Region

**NOVEMBER 1986** 





# RISK ASSESSMENT KESTERSON PROGRAM

Submitted to

U.S. Bureau of Reclamation, Mid-Pacific Region

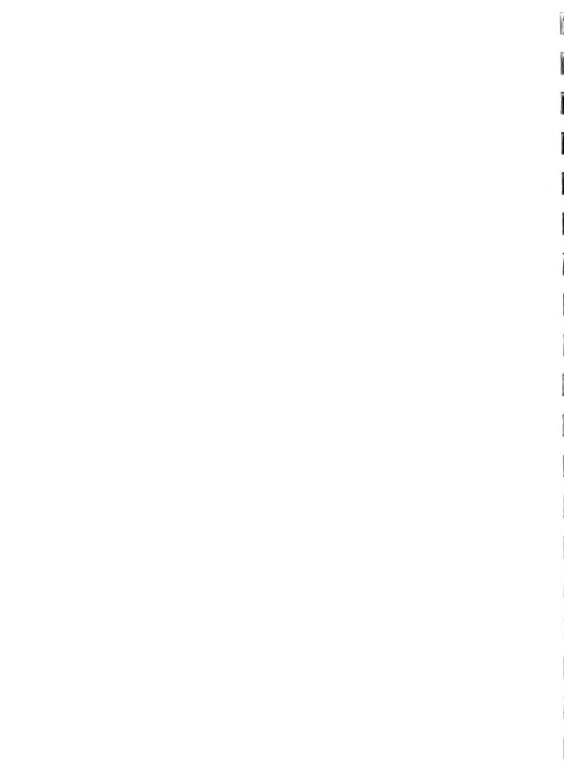
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#### SUMMARY

This risk assessment of Kesterson Reservoir (KR) cleanup alternatives consists of four elements:

- o Contamination evaluation and determination of contaminants of concern
- o Analysis of exposure pathways, identification of key species, and estimates of contaminant transfer between pathway components
- o Review of toxicological properties of contaminants of concern for key species
- o Risk characterization, including the range of magnitude of expected exposure and the likelihood of such exposure occurring for each cleanup alternative

Review of information related to past and present contamination at KR indicates that selenium is a major contaminant of concern because, in the past, it has exceeded water quality guidelines and criteria, has accumulated in KR soils, has migrated into the groundwater in some locations, and has been linked experimentally and observationally to wildlife effects.

Other identified constituents of possible concern which have exceeded water quality guidelines and criteria include boron, chromium, molybdenum, mercury, salts, and zinc. Chromium, mercury, molybdenum, and zinc are not of concern because these constituents neither appear in KR soils above background concentrations, nor exceed guidelines and criteria for KR groundwater supplies. TDS is not of concern because no evidence exists that TDS concentrations in groundwater supplies will cause adverse wildlife effects in KR. Boron is not of concern because no existing evidence has linked boron to observed KR wildlife effects; such evidence does exist for selenium.

Three cleanup alternatives were analyzed in detail: the Flexible Response Plan (FRP), the Onsite Disposal Plan-1 (excavating about 450,000 cubic yards), and the Onsite Disposal Plan-2 (excavating about 1,000,000 cubic yards).

Potential exposure pathways, resulting from implementation of these alternatives, to residual contamination at KR include food chain or ingestion, direct contact and absorption, and air migration and inhalation. Populations potentially exposed to contamination via these pathways include human populations (foragers, adjacent residents, workers and

hunters) and various fish and wildlife species. Insufficient information exists to perform a quantitative risk assessment for potentially exposed human populations at KR. A qualitative risk assessment for human populations is presented in the Kesterson Program EIS (USBR, 1986a). Food chain exposure is considered the most important exposure pathway for fish and wildlife at KR.

Key fish and wildlife species were identified for quantitative risk assessment to represent the range of possible exposure impacts at KR. Selection of species was based on several considerations: they are the terminus of a major KR food chain exposure pathway, impacts on species have been observed in the past, they are rare or endangered species, they have particularly sensitive life stages, or information is available on the effects of selenium exposure for the species.

Key species identified were the mallard, American coot, black-necked stilt, tricolored blackbird, mosquitofish, eared grebe and San Joaquin Valley kit fox. These species represent potential exposure to contamination via the midwater, benthic, aquatic rooted plant, fish, and terrestrial pathways. Detailed food chain exposure diagrams for each of these species were abstracted into simplified selenium transfer models. These models were used with a "Monte Carlo" simulation technique to estimate the probability distribution of predictions of selenium concentration in the diets of the key species.

Use of this modeling approach has several limitations. The model assumed a constant and steady state relationship between selenium levels in exposure pathway components and does not take into account the length of time necessary to achieve steady state conditions. Also, because insufficient information exists to develop quantitative dose response relationships for diet selenium exposure for the key species at KR, the model results cannot be used to make quantitative estimates of the impact of cleanup alternatives on the exposed populations.

A review of the toxicological effects of selenium indicates the following diet selenium concentrations may result in harmful impacts:

	Harmful	Diet
	Diet Selenium	Cleanup
Key Species	Concentration	Goals
Group	(mg/kg)	(mg/kg)
Birds	5-10	3
Mammals	2-5	
Fish	3~5	5

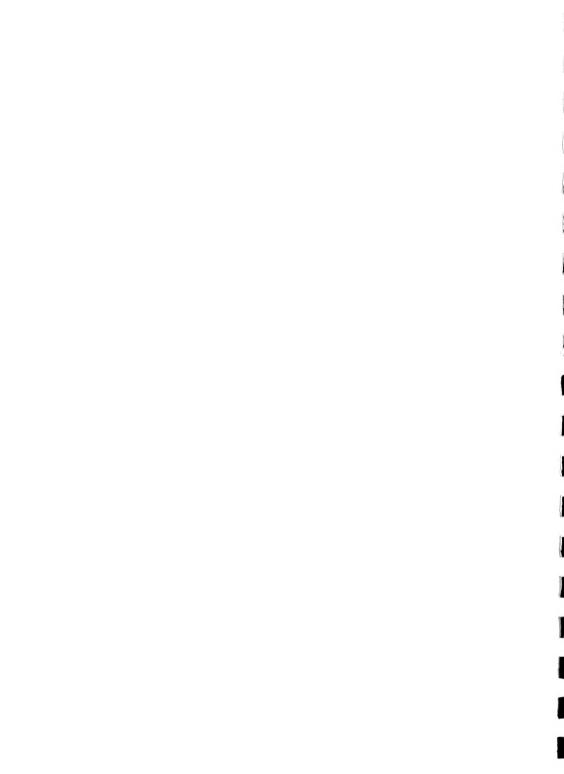
These harmful effect ranges are different than cleanup goals because they represent the range of selenium concentrations where harmful effects have been observed rather than more conservative cleanup goals.

The harmful effect levels and cleanup goals are compared to the model predictions of diet selenium levels to evaluate the potential for success of the alternative cleanup plans. Figures S-1 through S-3 and Table S-1 show the results.

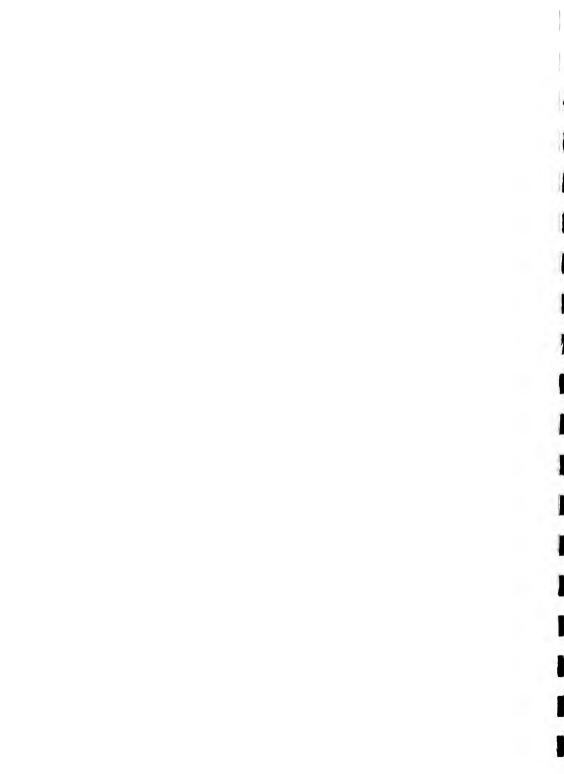
The risk characterization does not indicate that any of the plans will clearly fail. For avian species, the results for the FRP show that 40 to 65 percent of the diet selenium predictions show levels below the harmful effect range. The Onsite Disposal Plan-1 shows a greater frequency of below harmful effect predictions, 65 to 90 percent. The Onsite Disposal Plan-2 results in the highest frequency of below harmful effect predictions, 85 to 95 percent.

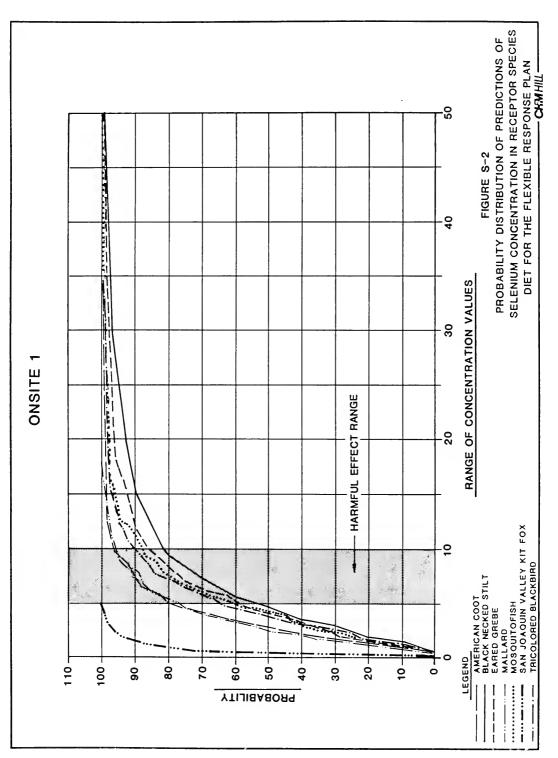
The risk characterization results show that each of the plans may present some risks to wildlife. Based on the methods and assumptions used for the risk characterization, predicted risks are greatest for the FRP, less for Onsite 1, and least for Onsite 2.

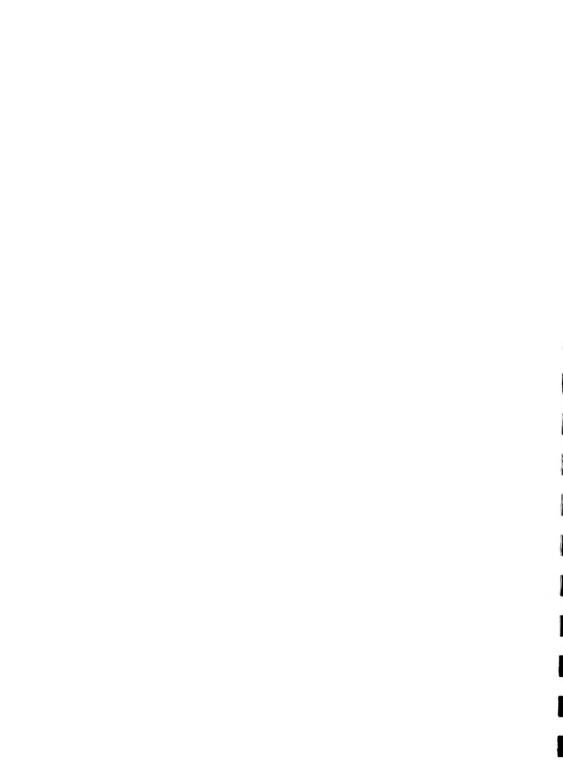
Termination of drainwater flow and implementation of the FRP may reduce avian diet selenium concentrations to 8 mg/kg (below the top of the harmful effects range) at a relatively low first-year cost (\$2.5 million); 50 percent of the diet selenium predictions indicate this result. Increased expenditures (\$20 million in first-year costs) for the Onsite Disposal Plan-1 may reduce avian diet selenium concentrations to 4 mg/kg (below the bottom of the harmful effects range), as indicated by 50 percent of the predictions. Greater expenditures (\$40 million in first-year costs) for the Onsite Disposal Plan-2 may reduce avian diet selenium concentrations to 2.5 mg/kg (below the cleanup goal of 3 mg/kg) as indicated by 50 percent of the predictions. To achieve a greater probability (90 to 95 percent) that the cleanup goal of 3 mg/kg will be achieved, further excavation of KR would be necessary, at a cost of up to \$144 million.

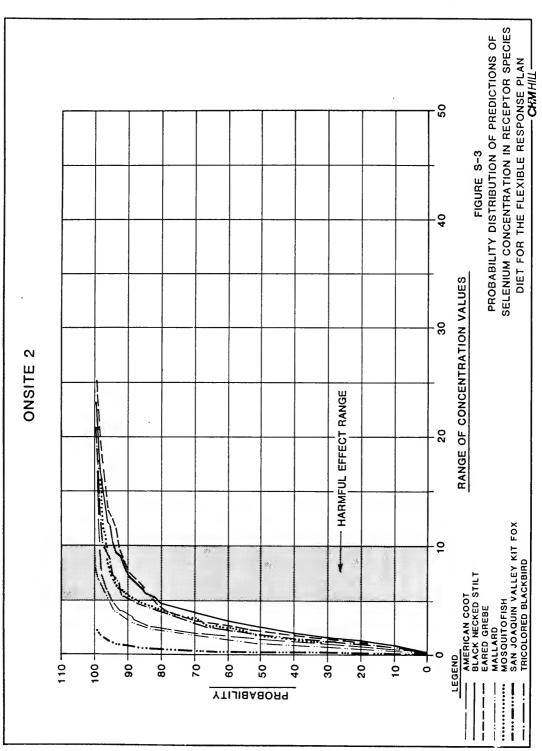


# SELENIUM CONCENTRATION IN RECEPTOR SPECIES PROBABILITY DISTRIBUTION OF PREDICTIONS OF DIET FOR THE FLEXIBLE RESPONSE PLAN - CHIHIEL-50 FIGURE S-1 9 RECEPTOR DIET SELENIUM CONCENTRATION (mg/kg) FLEXIBLE RESPONSE PLAN HARMFUL EFFECT RANGE 20 15 SAN JOAQUIN VALLEY KIT FOX TRICOLORED BLACKBIRD AMERICAN COOT BLACK NECKED STILT MOSQUITOFISH EARED GREBE MALLARD LEGEND 70-10-100 90 0 06 80 09 50 6 စ္တ 20 .......... YTIJIBABOR9









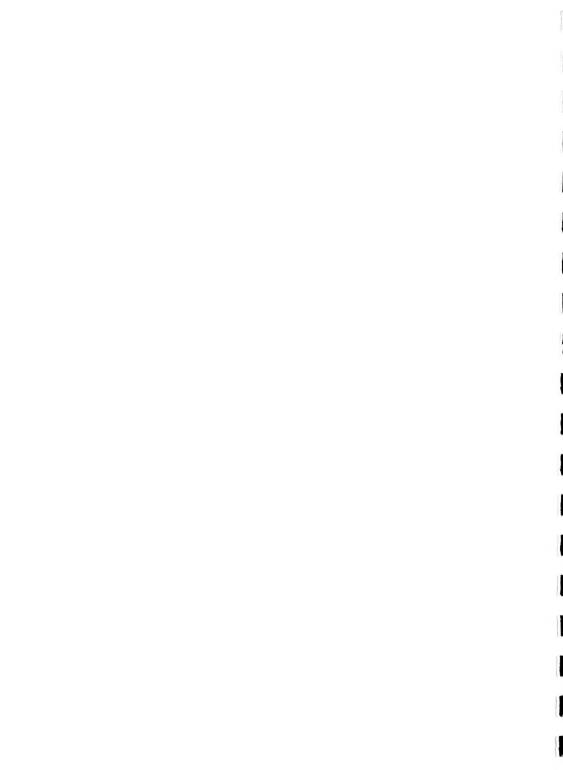


Table S-1
PERCENT OF DIET SELENIUM PREDICTIONS THAT ARE BELOW ESTIMAED HARMFUL LEVELS FOR EACH KEY SPECIES AND FOR EACH CLEANUP ALTERNATIVE

			Cleanup	Cleanup Alternative		
Key Species	14	FRP	Ons	Onsite-1 <sup>C</sup>	Onsite-2 <sup>d</sup>	e-2 <sup>d</sup>
Birds - Harmful Effect Level <sup>a</sup>	2	10	Ŋ	10	5	10
Mallards	20	80	75	95	95	~100
Coots	20	75	80	95	95	~100
Blacknecked Stilts	25	20	20	80	80	95
Tricolored Blackbirds	35	65	09	06	85	95
Eared Grebes	35	09	09	85	80	06
Mammals - Harmful Effect Level <sup>a</sup>	2	Ŋ	2	Ŋ	2	S
San Joaquin Valley Kit Fox	06	~100	95	~100	~100	~100
Fish - Harmful Effect Level <sup>a,b</sup>	٣	5	ю	S	m	Ŋ
Mosquitofish	20	35	35	20	7.0	06

 $<sup>^{</sup>a}$ Diet selenium concentration (mg/kg).

 $<sup>^{</sup>m b}_{
m Mosquitofish}$  not harmed by these selenium levels although other species may be.

C450,000 cubic yards.

d1,000,000 cubic yards.

r.
{

# Chapter 1

#### INTRODUCTION

The overall objective of this risk assessment is to provide, to the extent feasible with existing information, a quantitative analysis of the magnitude and uncertainty of estimates of potential adverse impacts on fish, wildlife, and human populations that may result from implementation of Kesterson Reservoir (KR) cleanup alternatives.

The risk assessment contains the following components:

- Contamination evaluation and determination of contaminants of concern
- o Analysis of exposure pathways, identification of key species, and estimates of transfer factors between pathway components
- Review of toxicological properties of contaminants of concern for key species
- o Risk characterization, including the range of magnitude of expected exposure and the likelihood of such exposure occurring for each disposal alternative

### CONTAMINATION EVALUATION

The purpose of the contamination evaluation is to determine potential constituents of concern and the extent of their distribution at KR. Previous contamination evaluations for KR are reviewed and summarized. This evaluation includes a review of existing literature for evidence of the effects of contaminants at KR.

### EXPOSURE ASSESSMENT

The objectives of this component are to identify the major contamination exposure pathways at KR; the key fish, wild-life, and human populations which are receptors of contamination from these pathways; the size of the exposed populations; and to estimate transfer factors and their uncertainties, which describe contamination transport between exposure pathway components.

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#### TOXICITY ASSESSMENT

The objectives of the toxicity assessment are to determine the nature and extent of effects associated with exposure to contamination. It is a two-step process consisting of toxicological evaluation and dose-response assessment.

The toxicological evaluation is a qualitative analysis of scientific data to determine the nature and severity of actual or potential environmental risk associated with exposure to contamination. It results in a toxicity profile which presents a review of the literature on the types of adverse effects manifested, the doses employed, and the routes of exposure.

The dose-response assessment is an attempt to make a quantitative estimate of impact from exposure to a toxic chemical. It defines the relationship between the dose of a chemical and the expected incidence of the adverse effect.

### RISK CHARACTERIZATION

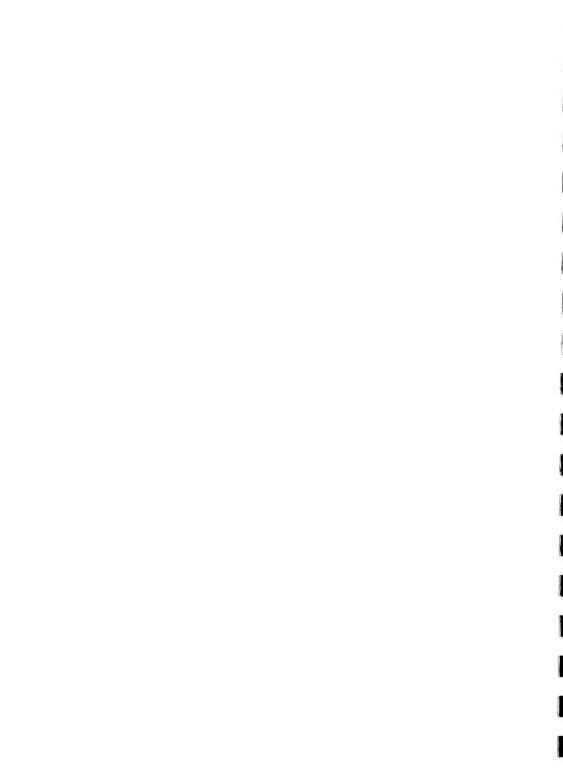
Risk characterization is the process of estimating the potential adverse environmental effect, using the results of the toxicity assessment, under the various conditions of exposure defined in the exposure assessment.

Uncertainty related to the variability of bioaccumulation relationships and diet distribution are evaluated using a Monte Carlo simulation procedure.

This procedure allows:

- Estimation of the expected range of exposure levels given the variability of environmental conditions and the uncertainty of transfer and diet factors
- Evaluation of the conceptual exposure pathway model regarding error due to poor estimates of input parameters, as well as the sensitivity of the model to particular parameters

The Monte Carlo simulation procedure provides estimates of the range of predictions of contaminant exposure for each of the key species and cleanup alternatives.



# Chapter 2 CONTAMINATION EVALUATION

### INTRODUCTION

The source of contamination at KR is subsurface drainwater from irrigated agricultural lands that was delivered to KR via the San Luis Drain (SLD). Delivery of drainwater ceased in June 1986. Contamination which remains at KR is that portion of contaminants delivered via drainwater that has accumulated in soils and biota. It is also possible that contaminants that have seeped into the shallow groundwater beneath KR could be reapplied to the surface of KR as part of water supply for the Flexible Response Plan (FRP) cleanup alternative (see Chapter 3).

The California State Water Resources Control Board (SWRCB) has identified constituents of concern in agricultural drainwater (SWRCB 1986). These constituents are shown in Table 2-1 and are used as a basis for further evaluation of KR contaminants. The levels of these contaminants in SLD drainwater, KR surface water, KR groundwater, KR soils, and biota are evaluated to determine if there is any evidence for residual contamination that has accumulated in KR soils, biota, or groundwater that may result in future harmful effects to potentially exposed populations.

# PAST WATER CONTAMINANT CONCENTRATIONS

Table 2-1 summarizes water quality guidelines and criteria established for the SWRCB constituents of concern (USBR 1986a). Table 2-2 is a summary of SLD drainwater quality during 1984 and 1985 (USBR 1985). Table 2-3 summarizes KR surface water quality during 1984 and 1985 (USBR 1985). Table 2-4 shows KR shallow groundwater quality during 1984 and 1985 (USBR 1986a). The following drainwater constituents have exceeded water quality guidelines and criteria in historic SLD drainwater and KR surface water, and therefore warrant further analysis: boron, chromium, molybdenum, mercury, TDS, selenium, and zinc.

#### BORON

Boron was present in agricultural drainwater delivered to KR at concentrations ranging from 13,000 to 17,000  $\mu g/l$  while boron concentrations in the surface water at KR have been in range of 11,000 to 65,000  $\mu g/l$ . These data show that boron levels increased in some areas probably due to evaporation in KR surface water.

		1
		1

Table 2-1
WATER QUALITY GUIDELINES AND CRITERIA FOR
SWRCB DRAIN WATER CONSTITUENTS OF CONCERN

		Water Quality G	Water Quality Guidelines and Criteria (µg/l)	riteria (µg/l)	
	Ambier	Ambient Water			
	Quality	Criteria			
SWRCB	To Prote	sct Fresh-L			
Constituențs	Water Agu	Water Aquatic Life		•	
of Concerna	4-Day	1-Hour	Drink	Drinking Water <sup>C</sup>	
(µg/1)	Average	Average	Primary	Secondary	Other
Boron	;	;	;	3	7509
Cadmium	6.9	52.7	10		!
Chromium	11	16	50	1	;
Copper	84.6	155.2	;	1,000	;
Manganese	-		!		ŀ
Mercury	0.012	2.4	2		:
Molybdenum		4 1 1	1		707
Nickel	16g <sup>a</sup>	$527_{\it E}^{ m I}$	ן ו	1	3
Selenium	354,6	260₹	1011	-	1
Zinc	47 <sup>cc</sup>	570		5,000	1
TDS (mg/1)	-	:	;	1,000	1

aswrcb 1986.

Total recoverable metals, value not to be exceeded more than once every the average. 3 years on <sup>b</sup>EPA 1985a.

CEPA 1979.

The selenium criterion is currently EPA 1980a. 24-hour average not 4-day average. Theing reviewed, and could be lowered to 2-5 mg/l. dEPA 1980a.

eSelenium as inorganic selenite.

 $^{\rm f}{\rm EPA}$  1980a. Maximum value not one-hour average.

For long-term irrigation on sensitive crops. 9EPA 1980b.

This criterion is currently being reviewed and could be raised to 45 µg/l. Ambient water quality goal for human health. hEPA 1985b. <sup>1</sup>EPA 1980a.

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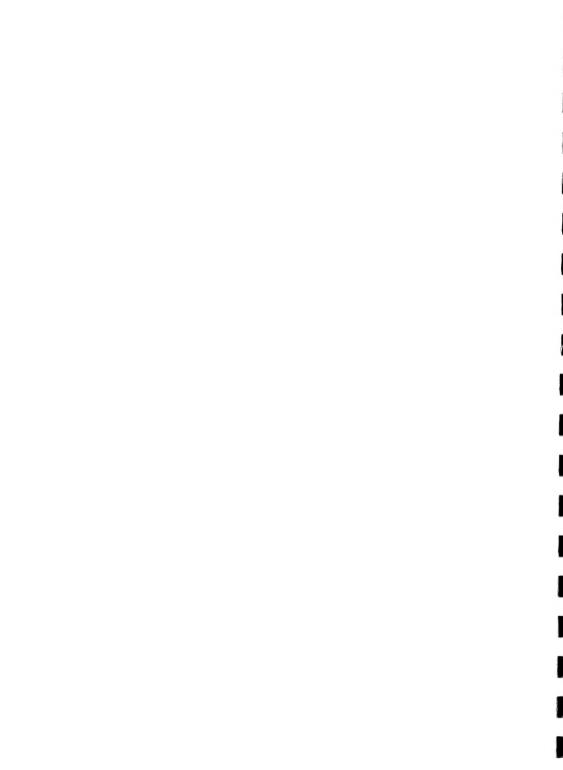


Table 2-2
SAN LUIS DRAIN CONSTITUENTS OF CONCERN AT CHECK 2
(1984-1985)

Zn ug/1	20	30	20	<b>&lt;</b> 2	12	10	<10	20	<10	<10	20	<10	20	10	10	١	ı	1
Se ug/1	300	350	330	340	350	360	370	250	230	320	280	200	6	320	410	350	ı	1
Ni ug/1	10	9	8	21	30	<1	51	9	18	22	13	13	10	8	22	ı	17	1
Mo ug/1	110	98	120	74	28	69	130	110	110	110	94	120	120	120	110	1	51	1
Mn ug/1	270	30	30	<10	11	40	30	100	700	330	330	190	20	09	40	r	ı	ı
Hg ug/1	<.1 <.1	\.\.	 	<.1	<.1	<.1	<.1	<.1	<.1	<.1	<.1	<.1	0.2	3.0	0.3	1	1.0	1
Cu ug/1	9 4	4 m	വ	<20	<20	2	4	2	æ	2	٣	2	m	2	2	1	2	1
Cr ug/1	30	21	9 6	22	12	6	12	4	7	10	11	12	8	10	11	1	10	ı
Cd ug/1	<b>^</b> 1	\ - -	<b>,</b> 1	<b>&lt;</b> 1	<b>&lt;</b> 1	<b>&lt;</b> 1	<b>&lt;</b> 1	2	<b>^</b> 1	<b>\</b>	<b>\</b> 1	П	<b>1</b>	1	<b>&lt;</b> 1	ı	ı	ı
B ug/1	15000	13000	14000	15000	16000	16000	17000	15000	15000	13000	12000	12000	13000	15000	15000	16000	15000	1
EC pmhos/cm	11200	12100	12580	12490	12250	12200	13240	10980	10800	9720	9140	11030	11780	13220	12970	12300	11670	11280
Date Sampled	84/03/12	84/04/24	84/05/21	84/07/23	84/08/20	84/09/24	84/10/10	84/11/12	84/12/10	85/01/14	85/02/13	85/03/14	85/04/09	85/05/08	85/06/06	85/07/11	82/08/08	85/09/12

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		1
		1
		4

Table 2-3
KESTERSON RESERVOIR CONSTITUENTS OF CONCERN AT
SURFACE WATER SITES (1984-85)

Zn ug/1	00	200	200	2 5	, (10	20	\$ 2	<b>&lt;</b> 2	20	20	<10	'	40	<10	<10	10	<10	20	) <b>I</b>		١	20	20	20	80	10	10	ζ2	<b>?</b>	ļ <b>1</b>
Se ug/1	500	300	170	370	~	390	320	390	380	250	290	270	250	270	270	310	260	430	370	) I	ı	300	300	270	460	330	390	370	340	330
Ni ug/1	6	· :-	1.	: :	34	20	26	6	19	6	2	11	22	14	12	19	1	12	1	ı	ı	5	1.2	<u>ه</u>	11	13	15	23	34	16
Mo ug/1	06	110	140	170	120	150	09	200	150	120	120	1	110	86	110	130	110	120	,	ı	ı	90	94	150	190	170	160	170	72	200
Mn ug/1	20	10	20	40	30	10	17	13	20	130	460	ı	300	150	20	06	20	50	ı	ı	1	20	<10	20	20	40	40	40	29	ı
Hg ug/1	<b>&lt;.</b> 1	<.1	<.1	<.1	<.1	<.1	<.1	<.1	<b>&lt;.1</b>	<.1	0.2	1	<.1	9.0	<b>&lt;.1</b>	<.1	<.1	0.2	ı	ı	ı	< <b>.</b> 1	<.1	<.1	<.1	<.1	<.1	0.1	<.1	<.1
Cu ug/1	m	4	2	2	m	<20	<20	<20	2	4	2	15	5	2	2	4	7	7	ı	ı	•	m	е	1	2	m	2	<20	<20	ı
$\frac{\mathrm{Cr}}{\mathrm{ug/1}}$	6	12	4	12	14	2	12	6	9	10	6	16	19	18	,	10	80	12	ı	1	ı	7	80	9	4	2	2	2	<b>\</b> 1	П
Cd u9/1	7	∵	<b>\</b>	<b>\</b> 1	<b>\</b> 1	<b>\</b> 1	۲,	<b>\</b> 1	<b>\</b> 1	<b>\</b> 1	<b>&lt;</b> 1	<b>\</b>	<b>\</b> 1	<b>\</b> 1	<2	2	<b>&lt;</b> 1	<b>&lt;</b> 1	1	1	ı	<b>\</b> 1	<1	<b>&lt;</b> 1	-	<b>\</b> 1	<b>&lt;</b> 1	<b>\</b>	<b>&lt;</b> 1	<b>&lt;</b> 1
B ug/1	13000	14000	15000	14000	15000	15000	17000	16000	18000	15000	16000	ı	11000	13000	13000	14000	15000	15000	16000	ı	ı	14000	14000	14000	15000	19000	18000	18000	18000	19000
EC pmhos/cm	11200	11700	12300	12640	12740	12900	12520	12800	12940	10700	1110	1	10090	10110	10880	11900	12400	12310	12700	12700	12030	11300	11700	12400	13840	15640	14820	15720	14410	14870
Date Sampled	84/03/12	84/04/02	84/04/23	84/05/18	84/06/13	84/07/10	84/08/08	84/09/19	84/10/30	84/11/26	84/12/18	85/01/23	85/01/29	85/02/26	85/03/26	85/04/22	85/05/22	85/06/18	85/07/23	85/07/23	85/08/20	84/03/12	84/04/02	84/04/23	84/05/17	84/06/13	84/06/13	84/07/10	84/08/08	84/09/20
Site	KR1/2	KR1/2	KR1/2	KR2/5	KR2/5	KR2/5	KR2/5	KR2/5	KR2/5	KR2/5	KR2/5	KR2/5	KR2/5	KR2/5	KR2/5	KR2/5	KR2/5	KR2/5	KR2/5	KR2/5	KR2/5	KR5/6	KR5/6	KR5/6	KR5/6	KR5/6	KR5/7	KR5/7	KR5/7	KR5/7

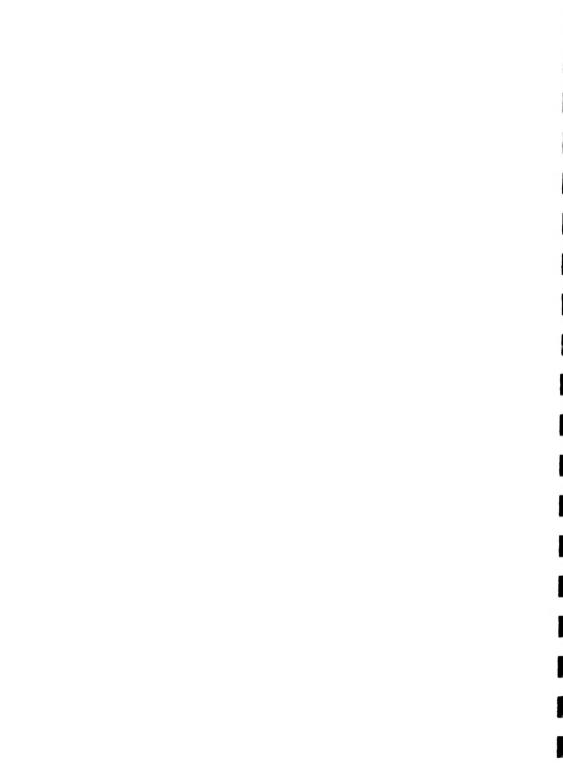


Table 2-3 (Continued)

Zn ug/1	ı	<10	20	10	10	20	ı	30	20	30	<b>&lt;</b> 2	21	7	,	70	20	<10	20	20	٠	20	7	<5	ı	30	20	40	20	30	30	30
Se ug/1	190	250	130	170	300	320	310	200	200	78	110	28	24	190	190	29	82	33	53	140	270*	74	54	140	140	70	140	190	130	m	*69
Ni ug/1	80	21	14	13	6	80	ı	67	9	17	21	23	9	6	10	12	ω	7	16	ω	21	20	20	7	20	6	36	30	6	15	12
Mo ug/1	1	110	100	120	170	180	ı	170	100	210	210	120	540	ı	150	130	110	48	130	1	160	220	190	1	210	180	140	180	160	130	140
Mn ug/1	ı	20	20	20	30	30	ı	30	20	40	20	56	59	ı	20	30	30	50	20	ı	40	40	28	ı	40	06	130	20	40	90	180*
Hg ug/1	ı	<.1	0.2	<.1	0.1	0.1	ı	<.1	<.1	0.1	<.1	0.1	0.1	ı	<b>`.</b> 1	0.3	< <b>.</b> 1	<.1	0.2*	1	<.1	<.1	< <b>.</b> 1	ı	<.1	<.1	0.1	0.3	<.1	<.1	0.2*
Cu ug/1	11	4	2	17	2	2	ı	4	٣	Э	<20	<20	<20	9	m	2	1	m	က	S	Э	<20	<20	11	٣	7	2	7	2	2	1
Cr ug/1	80	12	89	7	2	9	1	<b>&lt;</b> 5	m	7	<b>\</b>	4	<b>\</b>	4	2	7	ı	2	П	m	-	2	m	Э	-1	2	2	4	1	<b>&lt;</b> 1	1
Cd ug/1	<b>&lt;</b> 1	<b>&lt;</b> 1	<b>\</b> 1	П	П	<b>\</b>	1	<b>\</b>	<b>\</b> 1	<b>\</b> 1	<b>\</b> 1	<b>&lt;</b> 1	<b>&lt;</b> 1	ζ,	<b>&lt;</b> 1	<b>&lt;</b> 1	<b>\</b> 1	<b>\</b> 1	<b>\</b> 1	<b>\</b> 1	<b>&lt;</b> 1	<b>&lt;</b> 1	<b>&lt;</b> 1	<b>&lt;</b> 1	<b>\</b>	П	<b>\</b> 1	₽	<b>&lt;</b> 1	7	<b>&lt;</b> 1
B ug/1	1	13000	14000	13000	17000	18000	18000	18000	14000	21000	29000	43000	65000	1	21000	22000	22000	21000	28000	ı	24000	32000	54000	ı	27000	35000	20000	19000	21000	26000	41000*
EC pmhos/cm	1	10012	10960	11320	13920	14570	14230	15250	11400	17970	24600	32620	56490	ı	15160	1590	15650	16480	19580	ı	19110	25740	11480	ı	19600	24800	15920	13180	14440	19480	27300
Date Sampled	85/01/23	85/01/28	85/02/26	85/03/27	85/05/21	85/06/18	85/07/25	84/05/17	84/03/12	84/06/13	84/07/10	84/08/08	84/09/21	85/01/23	85/01/30	85/02/27	85/03/25	85/04/22	85/05/21	85/01/23	84/06/13	84/07/10	84/08/08	85/01/23	85/04/24	85/05/21	84/05/17	85/01/29	85/02/26	85/04/24	85/05/21
Site Name	KR5/7	KR5/7	KR5/7	KR5/7	KR5/7	KR5/7	KR5/7	KR6/8	KRP03	KRP03	KRP03	KRP03	KRP03	KRP03	KRP03	KRP03	KRP03	KRP03	KRP03	KRP04	KRP06	KRP06	KRP06	KRP06	KRP06	KRP06	KRP08	KRP08	KRP08	KRP08	KRP08

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		1
		1

Table 2-3 (Continued)

Zn	7/6n	160	30	200	(10	27.	0 7 6	2 6	0.7	1 6	0.7	07	09	09	10	20	
Se	1/6n	130	230	210	200	001	220	000	06.1	70	2 2	0 5	40	140	240	7	
Ni 1/2/1	1/6n	5	40	10	6	α	ာ တ	16	1	۰ ۱	٠ <del>-</del>	1204	T 20 "	56	7	18	
Mo 114/1	1/65	75	110	130	140	150	150	240	0 1	0,11	100	001	007	140	160	170	
Mn 11971	1/65	80	20	20	30	30	50	) C	) I	60	2 6	0, 9	0 0	70	30	30	
Hg ug/1	200	0.2	<.1	0.2	<.1	<.1	<b>\</b> .1	<.1 <.1	! <b>!</b>	· 1	: `	;;	• • •	٥. ٢	<.1	<.1	
Cu uq/1		4	2	٣	٣	3	7	2	. 1	C	۰ ۳	) Lr	) (	7	IJ	4	
Cr uq/1		٣	7	7	<1	2	2	<b>&lt;</b> 1	- 1	0	1 4	, ,	ıc	D O	11	1	
Cd uq/1		۲>	<b>&lt;</b> 1	<b>\</b> 1	<b>&lt;</b> 1	2	<b>&lt;</b> 1	<b>&lt;</b> 1	1	<1		· -	! 5	Ţ	<b>\</b> 1	1	
B ug/1		17000	15000	16000	16000	17000	22000	29000	33000	15000	22000	27000	19000	7000	17000	26000	
EC pmhos/cm	i	13600	12400	7600	11940	13090	15990	21100	>20000	12100	16000	23800	13580		12900	17670	
Date Sampled		84/03/12	85/01/30	85/02/26	85/03/27	85/04/24	85/05/21	85/06/19	85/07/25	84/03/12	84/04/23	84/05/17	85/01/30	00/10/10	85/03/27	85/04/24	
Site Name		KRP09	KRP09	KRP09	KRP09	KRP09	KRP09	KRP09	KRP09	KRP12	KRP12	KRP12	KRP12		KRP12	KRP12	

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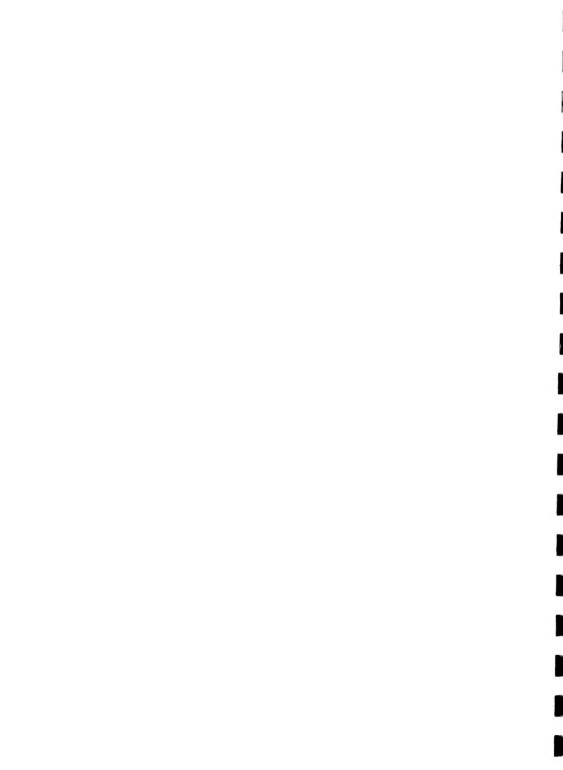


Table 2-4
KESTERSON RESERVOIR SHALLOW GROUNDWATER
CONSTITUENTS OF CONCERN
(1984-1985)

Monitoring Data<sup>a</sup> (μg/l) USBR Monitoring Well Data March 1984 - November 1985 Background Wells Kesterson Reservoir Constituent  $(\mu g/1)$ No. Obser. Average No. Obser. Average 56 14,000 Boron 3,076 655 Cadmium 55 1.1 599 1.3 Chromium 5.8 9.5 58 651 Copper 49 3.3 581 9.9 Mercury 51 0.11 610 0.13 Manganese 54 14.2 Molvbdenum 657 59.2 Nickel 56 10.6 647 30.3 Selenium 60 1.8 817 9 Zinc TDS<sup>b</sup> (mg/l) 32 56.5 453 78 62 4,000 883 10,900

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup>Values less than detection limit set equal to detection limit to calculate averages. Data for steel-cased wells are not included for zinc.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>b</sup>TDS for monitoring wells estimated by multiplying electroconductivity by 0.8.



Concentrations of boron in the shallow groundwater beneath KR average 14,000  $\mu g/1$  or about the same concentrations as in the surface water.

#### CHROMIUM

Agricultural drainwater delivered to KR contained 4 to 30  $\mu g/1$  of chromium. KR surface water samples showed levels from less than 1 to 19  $\mu g/1$ . The difference in concentrations between SLD drainwater and KR surface water indicates that chromium may be removed from the water column. The concentrations of chromium in the shallow groundwater beneath KR are approximately equal to surface water at KR, showing that chromium is not removed from water as it seeps through the soil into the ground.

#### MERCURY

Levels of mercury in drainwater varied from less than 0.1 to 3  $\mu g/1$ . Levels up to 0.6  $\mu g/1$  have been found in KR surface water. The level of mercury in shallow groundwater beneath KR was 0.13  $\mu g/1$ , approximately equal to background concentrations of 0.11  $\mu g/1$ .

#### MOLYBDENUM

Molybdenum in SLD water delivered to KR ranged from 28 to 140  $\mu g/1$ . Surface water molybdenum concentrations at KR ranged from 48 to 540  $\mu g/1$ , indicating molybdenum concentrations increased probably due to evaporation in KR surface water. Molybdenum concentrations in groundwater beneath KR is lower than KR surface water, indicating that molybdenum may have been removed in soil as surface water seeped into the ground.

# SALTS

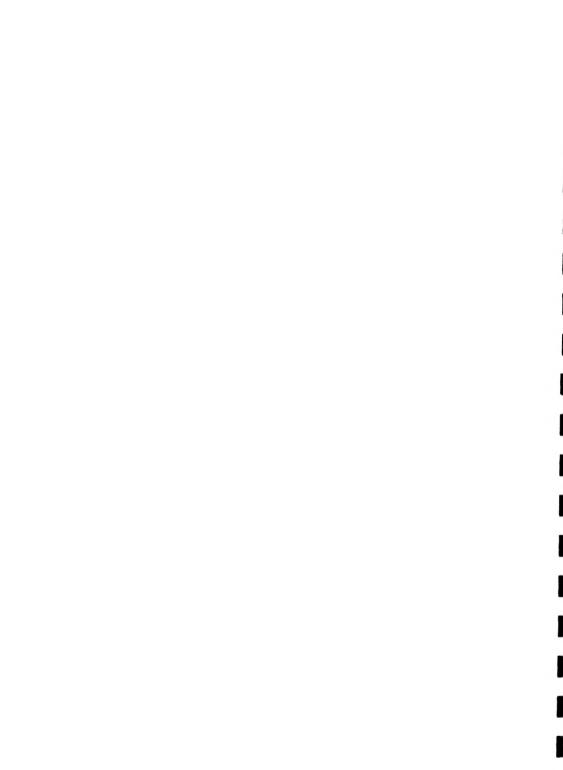
Agricultural drainwater delivered to KR contained 4,992 to 10,896 mg/l of total dissolved solids (TDS). Surface water samples from ponds at KR showed TDS levels 1,272 to 16,880 mg/l, indicating an increase in concentrations probably due to evaporation.

#### SELENIUM

Levels of selenium in SLD drainwater averaged approximately 300  $\mu q/1$ .

Levels of selenium in KR surface water decreased from south to north, suggesting that selenium was removed from the water column, probably by chemical or biological processes (LBL, 1986).

Selenium concentrations in the shallow groundwater beneath KR are much lower than in KR surface water, also suggesting selenium is being removed in KR soils and sediments.



#### ZINC

Concentrations of zinc in the shallow groundwater beneath KR are similar to those historically found in KR surface water, suggesting that zinc has seeped into the groundwater and has not accumulated in KR soils.

# PRESENT SOIL AND WATER SUPPLY CONTAMINANT CONCENTRATIONS

Table 2-5 shows constituents of concern levels in KR soils (USBR 1986a). No nearby KR wetland soil background levels for these contaminants, except for selenium, have been identified. Table 2-5 also shows expected constituent concentration in San Joaquin Valley soils similar to those underlying KR. Selenium is the only constituent which exceeds either background levels or San Joaquin Valley soils levels.

Table 2-6 shows the quality of groundwater based on analyses of existing water supply which will be applied to KR with implementation of FRP. Boron and TDS (0.8 x EC) are the constituents of concern which exceed water quality guidelines and criteria.

#### BIOTA

#### BACKGROUND

Mosquitofish (<u>Gambusia affinis</u>) captured at KR in May 1982 were found to have high levels of selenium (about 135 ppm - Saiki 1986). Because of these findings, the U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service (USFWS) began intensive studies at KR and at Volta Wildlife Area (a control area 10 km to the southwest which receives surface water) to further define the effects and extent of contamination resulting from drainwater application to KR.

In 1983, samples collected by USFWS included tissues and eggs of American coots, ducks, eared grebes (Podiceps nigricallis), and black-necked stilts (Himantopus mexicanus). These samples were analyzed for selenium, arsenic, cadmium, mercury, lead, zinc, and silver. Elements other than selenium were found in similar concentrations in the samples from KR and the Volta control site. Samples of food chain components, including rooted plants, invertebrates, and mosquitofish, were also collected at both sites in 1983. These samples were analyzed for silver, arsenic, boron, cadmium, chromium, copper, mercury, molybdenum, nickel, lead, selenium, and zinc. Only total selenium and boron concentrations were significantly higher in food chain samples collected at KR than in those collected at Volta Wildlife Area (Ohlendorf, et al. 1986).

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Table 2-5
SUMMARY OF SOIL CONCENTRATIONS (MG/KG) OF
CONSTITUENTS OF CONCERN

San Joaquin Valley Kesterson Soils Background Soils and Sediments Constituent Min. Max. Mean Min. Max. Mean Boron NDA NDA NDA LD LD LD Cadmium LD 2 2 LD LD LD Chromium LD 770 66 25 160 53 Copper LD 160 23 4 33 14 Manganese 880<sup>C</sup> LD 2,300 660 210 434 Mercury LD 9.4 .07 LD LD LD Molybdenum LD 28 2.1 LD 10 3 Nickel LD 160 37 9 120 34 Selenium LD 2.8 .24 LD 85 7 100<sup>d</sup> Zinc LD 70 140 13 NDA

Notes: LD = Less than analytical detection limit.

NDA = No data available.

Means calculated not including values less than detection.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup>Ron Tidball, USGS, unpublished data.

busbr (1986a)

 $<sup>^{\</sup>rm C}$ One sample out of 157 had 2,600 mg/kg Mn.

 $<sup>^{</sup>m d}$  One sample had 220 mg/kg and one sample had 230 mg/kg out of 157 samples.

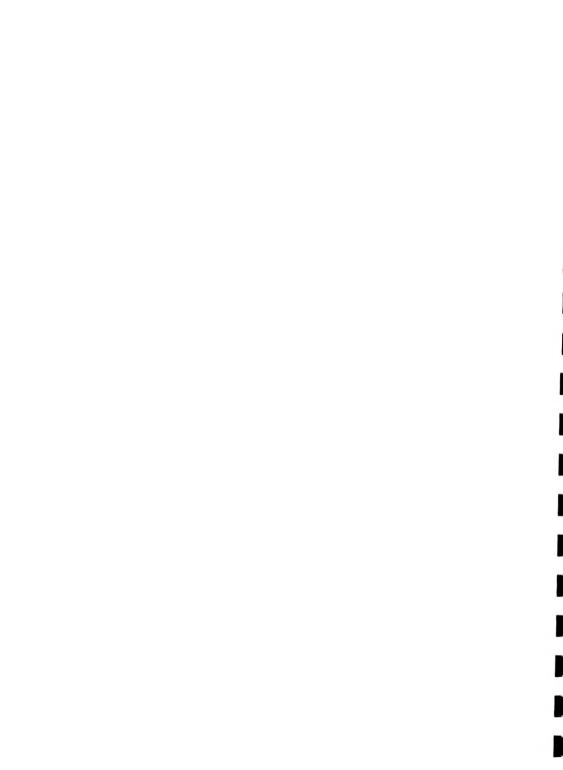
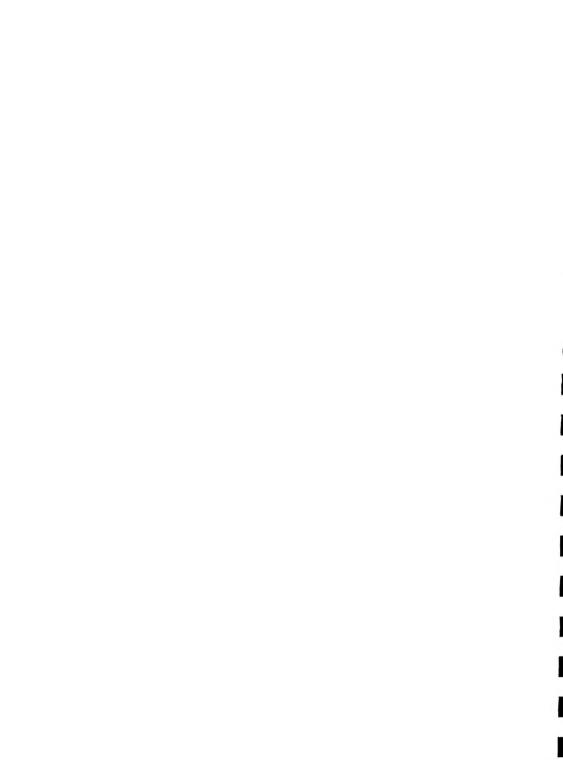


Table 2-6 QUALITY OF GROUNDWATER TO BE APPLIED TO KESTERSON RESERVOIR UNDER FRP

Site	Date	EC	As	Se	Cr	Cu	Mo	Ni	$\mathbf{z}_{\mathbf{n}}$	В	Ca	<b>M</b> g
Name	Sampled	Umhos/cm	ug/L	μg/L	μg/L	μg/L	μg/L	μg/L	μg/L	μg/L	Mg/L	Mg/L
									430	****	240	22.0
Well #1	07/09/86	10160	3	<1	3	<4	14	<4	<10	4000	340	310
Well #1	07/15/86	10600	3	<1	<2	<4	16	<4	<10	4000		
Well #1	07/24/86	10940	3	<1	<2	<4	24	<4	<10	5000	370	340
Well #1	07/31/86	11320	3	<1	<2	<4	20	<5	<10	5000	360	330
Well #1	08/06/86	11290	3	<1	<2	<4	24	<4	<10	5000	360	330
Well #1	09/29/86	11790	3	<1	<2	<4	21	<5	<10	6000	370	340
Well #2	07/09/86	6210	2	<1	<2	<4	5	<4	<10	1900	200	160
Well #2	07/15/86	5820	2	<1	<2	<4	7	<4	<10	1800		
Well #2	07/24/86	6000	2	<1	<2	<4	9	<4	<10	2000	200	160
Well #2	09/29/86	6160	2	<1	<2	<4	8	<5	<10	1500	200	160
Well #3	07/09/86	4830	1	<1	<2	<4	<4	<4	<10	700	250	120
Well #3	07/15/86	4850	1	<1	<2	<4	<4	<4	<10	800		
Well #3	07/24/86	4990	1	<1	<2	<4	<4	<4	<10	800	160	130
Well #3	08/06/86	5150	1	<1	<2	<4	24	<4	<10	800	160	130
Well #3	09/29/86	6250	1	<1	3	<4	14	<5	<10	1700	190	140
Well #4	07/09/86	6140	1	<1	<2	<4	12	<4	<10	1800	190	140
Well #4	07/15/86	6170	1	<1	<2	<4	12	<4	<10	200		
Well #4	07/24/86	6350	1	<1	<2	<4	11	<4	<10	2000	210	160
Well #4	07/31/86	6520	1	<1	<2	<4	12	<b>&lt;</b> 5	<10	2000	210	150
Well #4	08/06/86	6530	1	<1	<2	<4	14	<4	<10	2000	210	160
Well #4	09/29/86	5280	1	<1	<2	<4	<4	<5	<10	800	170	36
Well #5	09/29/86	6670	1	<1	<2	<4	11	<5	<10	2200	230	160
Well #6	09/29/86	5320	2	<1	<2	<4	6	<b>&lt;</b> 5	<10	1000	150	120
Well #7	09/29/86	6320	<1	<1	<2	<4	13	<5	<10	2100	190	140
Well #8	09/29/86	7460	<1	<1	5	<4	10	<5	10	2800	250	190



Boron found in vegetation at KR tends to concentrate in leaf tips where it is available to browsing animals (Gupta et al. 1985). Few data are available, however, concerning the acute and chronic toxicity of boron to fish and wildlife. Boron compounds (boric acid and borax) have been shown to cause mortality and teratogenic development when injected into eqgs (Landauer 1952, Birge and Black 1977).

In 1983, researchers concluded that selenium was the most likely cause of avian deaths and deformities at KR because the types of deformities found in avian embryos and young were typical of those induced by exposure to high levels of selenium, and selenium concentrations in the samples greatly exceeded those found in other areas of the United States (USDI 1984). Thus, selenium has been identified as the principal contaminant of concern at KR.

The importance of selenium as a contaminant at KR is increased because of the likelihood of bioaccumulation. Studies by Lemly (1985) in an aquatic ecosystem indicated that plankton (zooplankton and phytoplankton combined) concentrated selenium to 750 times the concentration in the water of Belews Lake, North Carolina, and that fish contained selenium concentrations 4,000 times that in water. In addition, sediments contained 350 times and benthic invertebrates contained 1,050 times the selenium concentrations of water in the lake. Selenium in water is taken up by biota including marsh plants, phytoplankton, zooplankton, and insects that contribute to the diets of higher forms of wildlife in the area (Burau 1985). Bioaccumulation has also been documented at KR (Ohlendorf, et al. 1986).

## INVERTEBRATES

Data on concentrations of selenium in invertebrates at KR show levels 12 to 130 times as contaminated as those collected at Volta Wildlife Area during the same period (Table 2-7). More recent data on selenium concentrations in invertebrates from KR and vicinity are available in a recent Lawrence Berkeley Laboratory report (LBL 1986). These data are used in the Exposure Assessment section of this report.

#### BIRDS

Ohlendorf, et al. (in press) found reproductive problems in aquatic birds nesting at KR in 1983-1985. Samples of bird eggs and livers collected at KR contained elevated levels of selenium. According to Ohlendorf (pers. comm.), selenium concentrations in livers of American coots collected in 1984 from KR contained almost twice the mean concentrations of selenium found in livers of coots collected at KR in 1983 (81.5 and 43.1 mg/kg, dry weight, respectively). Selenium concentrations in livers of ducks collected at KR in 1983 averaged 19.9 mg/kg dry weight (Presser and Ohlendorf in prep.). In areas without selenium contamination, dry

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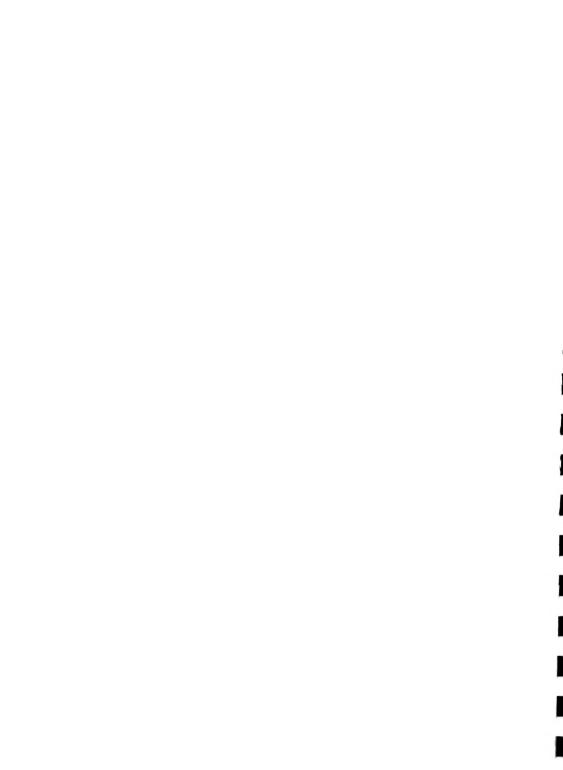
Table 2-7
SELENIUM CONCENTRATION (PPM DRY WEIGHT) IN
COMPOSITE SAMPLES OF INVERTEBRATES, MAY 1983

	Vol	ta Wild	life Area	Kest	erson	Reservoir
Sample	_N <sup>a</sup>	$\underline{\mathtt{Mean}}^{\mathtt{b}}$	(Range)	N	Mean	(Range)
Water boatmen (Corixidae)	5/5	1.91	(1.1-2.5)	2/2	22.1	(20-24)
Midge larvae (Chironomidae)	3/3	2.09	(1.5-3.0)	3/3	139	(71-200)
Dragonfly nymphs (Anisoptera)	2/2	1.29	(1.2-1.4)	6/6	122	(66-179)
Damselfly nymphs (Zygoptera)	2/2	1.45	(1.2-1.7)	3/3	175	(119-218)

 $<sup>^{\</sup>mathrm{a}}\mathrm{Number}$  with measurable concentrations/number analyzed.

Source: Modified from Ohlendorf et al. (in press a).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>b</sup>Geometric means, computed only when selenium was measurable in at least 50 percent of samples.



weight concentrations are usually less than 1 mg/kg in eggs, and less than 10 mg/kg in livers of freshwater birds (Ohlendorf pers. comm.).

Data available on the rates of embryonic mortality and deformity during the 1985 breeding season at KR (Table 2-8) indicated that of 124 nests monitored, 39.5 percent contained at least one dead or deformed embryo (Ohlendorf pers. The 1985 data indicated that nesting failures and high rates of embryotoxicity continued to occur, despite an active hazing program in 1985. In contrast, researchers found no abnormalities in embryos from nests monitored through late stages of incubation or hatching at Volta Wildlife Area in 1983-1985. Nests studied included those of pied-billed grebes (Podilymbus podiceps), killdeer (Charadrius vociferus), mallards (Anas platyrhynchos), northern pintails (A. acuta), gadwalls (A. strepera), cinnamon teal (A. cyanoptera), American coots (Fulica americana), black-necked stilts (Himaatopus mexicanus), American avocets (Recurvirostra americana), and eared grebes (Podiceps nigricollis).

The expected incidence of major external malformations in hatchlings of uncontaminated wild populations of birds and in embryos of laboratory-incubated mallard eggs is less than one percent (Pomeroy 1962, Gilbertson, et al. 1976, Hoffman 1978, Hill and Hoffman 1984).

Studies by Heinz, et al. (in press) indicated that when mallards were fed diets containing 10 mg/kg selenium as selenomethionine, some embryos had deformities similar to those observed at KR. Selenium concentrations in eggs of aquatic birds at KR were far higher than those at the Volta Wildlife Area which served as a control.

In 1983, only a few young were observed from the presumed 258 coot eggs hatched at Kesterson NWR, and only one young eared grebe was observed of the presumed 211 eggs hatched (Ohlendorf et al. 1986). The number of young coots surviving to adulthood is unknown. Despite thorough searches, no coot broods were observed, although coot and grebe broods were observed at Volta Wildlife Area. No coots nested at KR in 1984 or 1985 (Ohlendorf pers. comm.).

In 1984, no American avocet or black-necked stilt broods were observed past 2.5 weeks of age at KR (Niesen and Williams 1985). In 1985, no American avocet hatchlings over 3 weeks of age were observed at KR. Avocet and stilt hatchlings up to 6 weeks of age were observed at Volta Wildlife Area. No survival of juvenile avocets or stilts was recorded at KR, while recruitment of juvenile avocets and stilts into the adult populations appeared normal at Volta Wildlife Area in 1984 and 1985. In addition, more hatchling carcasses were found at KR in 1985 than in 1984 (Niesen and Williams 1985).

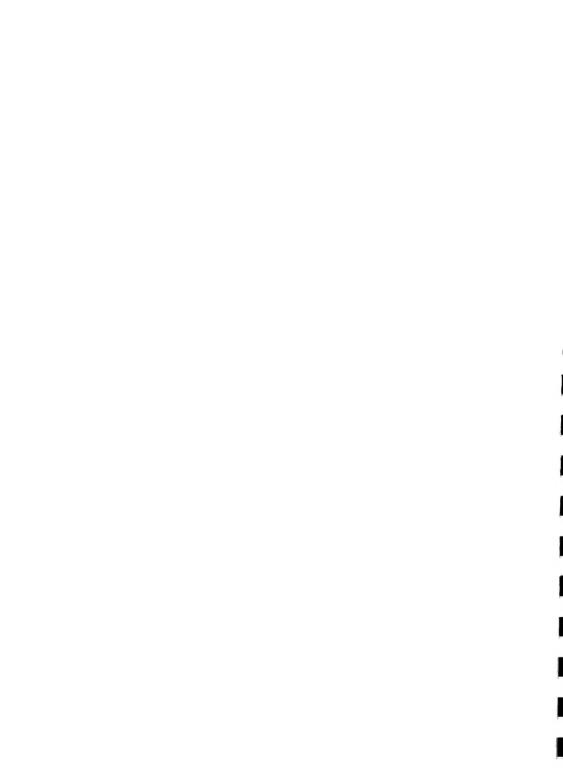


Table 2-8
SUMMARY OF FREQUENCIES OF MORTALITY AND DEFORMITIES IN
EMBRYOS AND CHICKS OF AQUATIC BIRDS NESTING AT
KESTERSON RESERVOIR, 1983-85

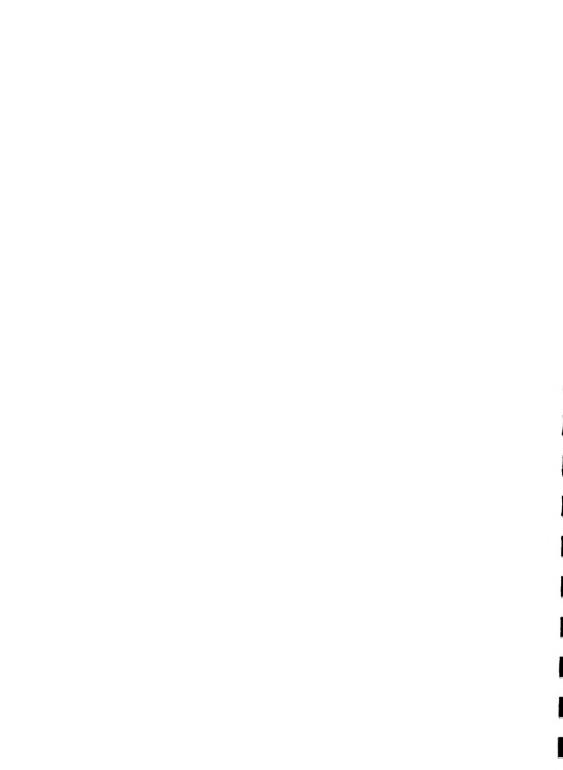
			ts with E	mbryo	toxicity	5	
Species/	а		Dead	De	formed		Total
Year	Nestsa	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
Coot 1983	59/91	35	(59.3)	25	(42.4)	38	(64.4)
Eared grebe 1983	141/163	84	(59.6)	22	(15.6)	89	(63.1)
Stilt 1983 1984 1985	101/125 63/189 69/96	17 7 20	(16.8) (11.1) (29.0)	18 12 23	(17.8) (19.0) (33.3)	24 14 30	(23.8) (22.2) (43.5)
Avocet 1983 1984 1985	16/16 19/51 22/35	0 0 4	(0) (0) (18.2)	0 0 4	(0) (0) (18.2)	0 0 5	(0) (0) (22.7)
Killdeer 1984 1985	12/32 16/25	0 7	(0) (43.8)	0	(0) (18.8)	0	(0) (50.0)
Ducks 1983 1984 1985	30/42 13/36 17/27	5 6 6	(16.7) (46.2) (35.3)	3 0 2	(10.0) (0) (11.8)	7 6 6	(23.3) (46.2) (35.3)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup>Monitored/found; nests monitored to hatching or from which a late-stage embryo was collected/nests found during study, including those lost to predation, flooding, desertion, etc.

Source: Ohlendorf (pers. comm. b).

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bDead = number of nests (and percent) with one or more dead embryos; deformed = nests with one or more deformed embryos or chicks; total = sum of all nests with at least one dead or deformed embryo or chick. All percentages calculated by dividing by number of "monitored" nests.



Selenium concentrations in duck muscle tissue from 1984 collections at Kesterson NWR by the California Department of Fish and Game ranged from 0.2-9.2 mg/kg wet weight (Daniel pers. comm.). Because of potential risks to human health from consuming foods with high selenium concentrations, Department of Health Services recommended that no waterfowl from Kesterson NWR be consumed (Kizer pers. comm.). Also, the USFWS has prohibited hunting and fishing at KR since 1984.

#### MAMMALS

A study of potential selenium contamination of mammals at KR was conducted in 1984. Species collected at KR and at Volta Wildlife Area included the California vole (Microtus californicus), harvest mouse (Reithrodontomys megalotis), house mouse (Mus musculus), ornate shrew (Sorex ornatus), desert cottontail (Sylvilagus auduboni), California ground squirrel (Citellus beecheyi), and muskrat (Ondatra zibethica). Preliminary results are reported below.

Reproductive problems were noted for California voles and house mice at KR, but not at Volta Wildlife Area. Western harvest mice and ornate shrews showed reproductive activity at KR, but a comparison with a control area could not be made since no females of either species were caught at Volta Wildlife Area (Clark pers. comm.).

Selenium concentrations were higher than background in the livers of specimens from KR for all species except the California ground squirrel (Clark pers. comm.). Preliminary data for the four most abundant species in this sample (California vole, harvest mouse, house mouse, and ornate shrew) are presented in Table 2-9; for these species, selenium levels at KR were 10 to 1,000 times higher than those at the Volta Wildlife Area. Livers from the carnivorous ornate shrews averaged 6 times more selenium than harvest mouse livers and 22 times more than California vole livers. The mean body burden of these species of herbivores (California vole, house mouse, and harvested mouse) shows a selenium level of 8.18 mg/kg. The single sample of ornate shrew, a small carnivorous rodent, had a body burden of 47.9 mg/kg, or about 6 times higher than found in herbivorous rodents of a similar size. Larger rodents, California ground squirrel and muskrat, had generally lower liver tissue selenium than observed in small rodents.

## HUMAN POPULATIONS

The Merced County Health Department conducted a limited public health survey of persons living directly adjacent to KR compared to a control group from Gustine. This survey included a questionnaire and blood, urine, and hair analyses. Based on the limited amount of human toxicological information

Table 2-9

SELENIUM CONCENTRATIONS (PPM DRY WEIGHT) IN
LIVERS AND WHOLE BODIES OF ABUNDANT SMALL MAMMAL SPECIES FROM
KESTERSON RESERVOIR AND VOLTA WILDLIFE AREA (PRELIMINARY DATA)

	Vol:	ta W	ildlife	Area			Kes	terson Rese	rvc	ir
		Live	er			Live				Whole Bodies
Species	Pond	N	Mean	(Range)	Pond	<u>N</u>	Mean	(Range)	N	Mean (Range)
California				ь						
vole	5 7	5	0.228	(ND-1.4) <sup>b</sup>	2	5	119	(61-250)	2	23 (13,33)
	7	5	0.229	(ND-1.2)	5	14	7.79	(ND-38)	2	2.4 (ND, 4.6)
					7	6	4.29	(3.3-5.8)	1	1.4
					9	2	4.85	(4.8-4.9)		
					11	1	9.2			
Harvest										
mouse	5 7	1	2.1		5		15.3	(6.5-34)	2	3.2 (2.4, 4.0)
	7	4	1.69	(1.2-2.2)	6	4	38.2	(19-73)	1	27
					7	2	15.5	(9.0-22)		
House mouse	5	5	2.67	(1.9-3.7)	2	2	14.5	(11-18)	2	18.1 (82,28)
					5	5	4.17	(ND-41)		
Ornate shrew			le shrew		7	8	92.7	(13-210)	4	47.9 (10-100)
			dlife Ar	ea was	11	1	100			
	not a	naly	zea							
Muskrat	6	1	ND		Drain	1	1.7			
	10	ī	1.5		3	3	32.1	(18-92)		
	12	1	0.82		11	1	2.5			
	13	3	0.351	(ND-0.96)						
	14	1	1.9							
California										
Ground										
Squirrel	4	1	0.58		8	2	1.82	(0.73, 2.9	9)	
	12	1	0.93		11	1	0.81			
	13	1	1.1							
Cottontail <sup>d</sup>										
Rabbit	1	1	0.14		9	1	2.1			
	5	1	0.13		10	2	2.2	(1.1, 3.3)		

 $<sup>\</sup>overline{a}$  Means are geometric for samples of N>2 because of skewness in the data. ND values are entered at 0.1 ppm, which is the detection limit.

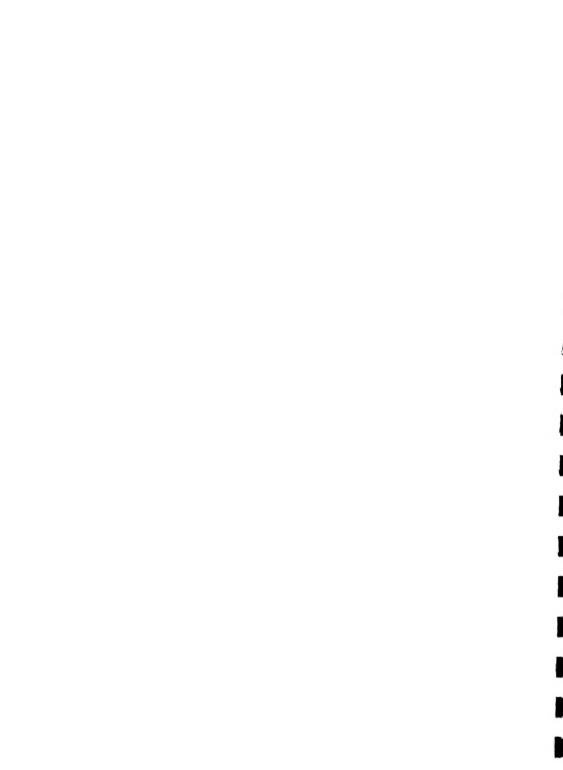
Source: Clark (pers. comm.).

SAT72/39

bSelenium not detected.

 $<sup>^{\</sup>mathrm{C}}\mathrm{Entire}$  animal minus stomach contents. Whole bodies not analyzed for Volta.

dThigh muscle only.



available for selenium, no evidence was found to indicate acute toxic effects on area residents resulting from exposure to KR (Merced County Health Department 1985).

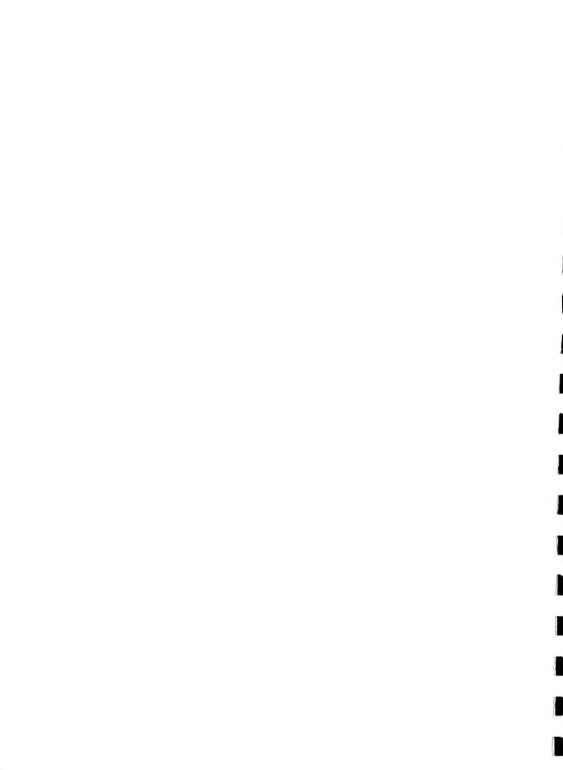
A public health selenium monitoring program for workers at KR was instituted at KR in 1984. From October 1984 to the present, blood chemistry and blood and urine selenium analyses were performed. Symptoms of acute or chronic selenium toxicity were not observed, and serum and urine selenium levels are within normal ranges (USBR 1986b).

# IDENTIFICATION OF CONSTITUENTS FOR RISK CHARACTERIZATION

Table 2-10 summarizes the results of the foregoing analyses. Based on this table, only boron and selenium are of potential concern with regards to this Risk Assessment. The following constituents are not of concern because they have not exceeded standards or guidelines in past measurements of SLD drainwater, KR surface water, and KR groundwater: cadmium, copper, manganese, and nickel. The following constituents are not of concern because they have not accumulated in KR soils above background concentration, and their concentrations in KR groundwater supplies do not exceed standards or guidelines: chromium, mercury, molybdenum, and zinc. TDS is not of concern, even though concentrations in KR groundwater supplies exceed standards and guidelines, because no evidence exists that TDS concentrations in applied groundwater will cause adverse wildlife effects in KR.

Boron is an essential nutrient for plants in low concentrations and exhibits toxic affects at higher levels. Reviews of boron nutritional requirements (Gupta, et al. 1985) and toxicity (Maas 1986) have been summarized by USBR (1986a). Typically, plants will exhibit toxic effects when, depending upon their tolerance, the boron concentrations exceed 200 mg/kg. However, many intolerant species of plants are affected by much lower levels of boron (5 to 50 mg/kg). Boron is accumulated in plant tissues at variable rates dependent upon species metabolism, soil, water, transpiration, and other variable environmental factors (Gupta, et al. 1985, Maas 1986, USBR 1986a).

Analytical results from 350 stem and leaf tissue samples of vegetation collected at KR had leaf tissue concentrations ranging from 10 to 610 mg/kg boron, with an average of 174 mg/kg (USBR 1986a). Boron levels exceeded 200 mg/kg in 36 percent of the plant samples, which represented all ponds at KR.

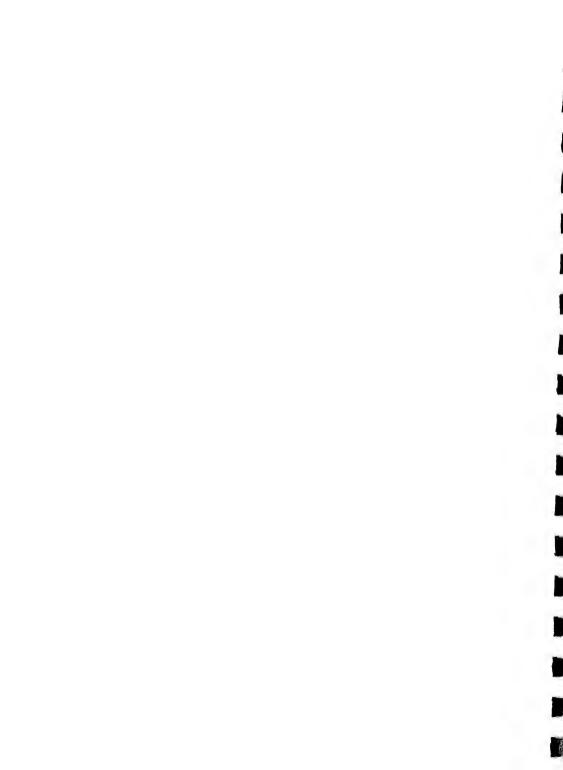


# Table 2-10 SUMMARY OF CONTAMINANT LEVELS IN KR MEDIA

Drainwater, Surface Water,

	or Shallow		KR Water Supply	
	Groundwater >	KR Soils >	Groundwater	KR Biota
Constituents	Standards?	Background?	> Standards?	> Background?
Boron	Yes	No	Yes	Yes
Cadmium	No			
Chromium	Yes	No	No	No
Copper	No			
Manganese	No			
Mercury	Yes	No	No	No
Molybdenum	Yes	No	No	No
Nickel	No			
Selenium	Yes	Yes	No	Yes
Zinc	Yes	No	No	No
TDS	Yes	NA	Yes	NA

Note: NA = Not applicable.



In a 1983 study of trace element concentrations in rooted plant leaf tissues, Ohlendorf, et al. (1986a) compared samples from sites exposed to drainwater at KR to a control site at Volta Wildlife Management Area. The results showed boron in one plant sample from the Volta area contained 34 mg/kg dry weight, while 9 samples taken at KR ranged from 270 to 510 mg/kg (mean = 382 mg/kg) or more than 10 times the level of the control site. Aquatic insect samples taken at KR had a mean of 45.2 mg/kg boron (range 36-54 mg/kg), while samples from Volta contained 13.4 mg/kg (range 6.7-35 mg/kg). Similarly, mosquitofish at KR had a mean tissue boron level of 11.1 mg/kg (range 8.0-20 mg/kg), while Volta samples showed a level of only 2.75 mg/kg (range ND-3.6 mg/kg). The exposure of the KR food chain to high levels of boron in drainwater has resulted in apparently higher levels in the organisms investigated thus far.

The implications of the available data are difficult to interpret given the present state of knowledge for several reasons. First, no data are available that indicate the dietary intake of boron by higher food chain components such as birds or carnivores. Secondly, little information is available that indicates potential toxic effects of boron in wildlife species.

Sax (1984) reports an oral-LD50 for mice of 2,000 mg/kg as boric acid. Limited acute aquatic toxicity data for mosquito-fish indicate that relatively high boron concentrations are needed to achieve a lethal dose. Boron concentrations ranging from 3,600 to 5,600 mg/l (sodium borate and boric acid, respectively) have been reported as being toxic (SWRCB 1963). Acute and chronic toxic effects of boron in the diet of wild birds or mammals has not been reported in the literature. Further studies are needed to determine whether ingested boron adversely affects wildlife reproduction (SWRCB 1986). Also, because of the mobility of boron, it is expected that boron presently accumulated in KR vegetation will not remain in the KR ecosystem although it may be reapplied as part of the water under the FRP.

Boron is not evaluated further in this Risk Assessment because, as discussed above, there is no existing evidence linking boron to observed KR wildlife effects; evidence does exist for selenium. Further study of the potential toxic effects of boron on wildlife species does, however, appear warranted. If such studies do link boron to wildlife toxicity, then risks to wildlife would be greater for the FRP than for the Onsite Disposal Plans, since the FRP includes using high boron local groundwater as a KR water supply (see Chapter 3).

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# Chapter 3 EXPOSURE ASSESSMENT

# INTRODUCTION

Risk assessment requires estimating selenium exposure that may occur as a result of implementing each of the several KR cleanup alternatives.

This section presents a description of the cleanup alternatives being considered for KR, a description of the biogeochemistry of selenium, a description of potential major selenium exposure pathways resulting from these cleanup alternatives, an identification of key species which are potential receptors of contamination from these pathways, the population sizes of the key species, a description of exposure pathway components, an estimate of selenium transfer factors (and their uncertainties) between pathway components, and key species diet factors.

## CLEANUP ALTERNATIVES

Cleanup alternatives under consideration for implementation at KR were developed and qualitatively evaluated in the Kesterson Program EIS (USBR 1986a). These alternatives are: the Phased Approach, the Onsite Disposal Plan, and the Offsite Disposal Plan. For the purposes of this risk assessment, it is necessary to consider components and subalternatives of these plans.

# PHASED APPROACH

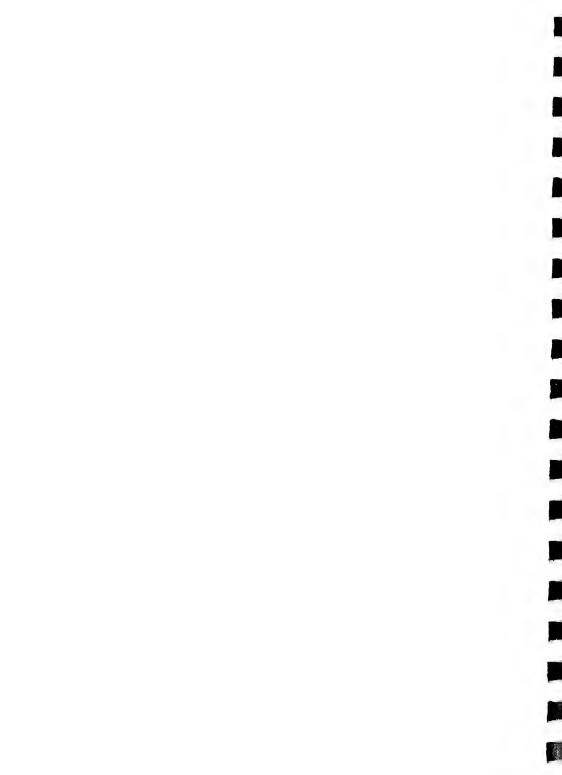
The phased approach consists of three components: the Flexible Response Plan (FRP), the Immobilization Plan, and the Onsite Disposal Plan.

## Flexible Response Plan

Under the FRP, the southern ponds (Ponds 1-8) where most of the soil selenium contamination occurs would be flooded with low selenium groundwater, and the northern ponds (Ponds 9-12) would not have water applied. Vegetation in the northern ponds would be controlled by discing. Some areas of the northern ponds could be seasonally wet when groundwater rises typically November through April.

## Immobilization Plan

The Immobilization Plan is similar to the FRP to the extent that water would continue to be applied to the southern ponds and the northern ponds would not have applied water.



Emergent vegetation in the southern ponds would be harvested and disposed offsite. In the northern ponds, exposure to contamination would be controlled through discing, and if necessary, vegetation harvesting and offsite disposal, or filling seasonal wetlands with soil. These management actions will reduce risk to wildlife compared to the FRP. Contamination exposure in the northern ponds under the Immobilization Plan is expected to be between that resulting from the FRP and the Onsite Disposal Plan. The Immobilization Plan is therefore not considered further in this risk assessment. Because insufficient information currently exists regarding the magnitude of reduced risks to wildlife achievable with this plan, the immobilization plan will be tested as part of the FRP.

# Onsite Disposal Plan

Under the Onsite Disposal Plan, contaminated soils and vegetation would be excavated and disposed of onsite in a lined and capped landfill. This plan has two subalternatives: excavating KR soil with selenium levels greater than 4 mg/kg and harvesting all above-ground vegetation (approximately 450,000 cubic yards) (Onsite-1) and excavating all KR soil and vegetation (approximately 1,000,000 cubic yards) (Onsite-2). These alternatives are addressed in this risk assessment.

#### ONSITE DISPOSAL PLAN

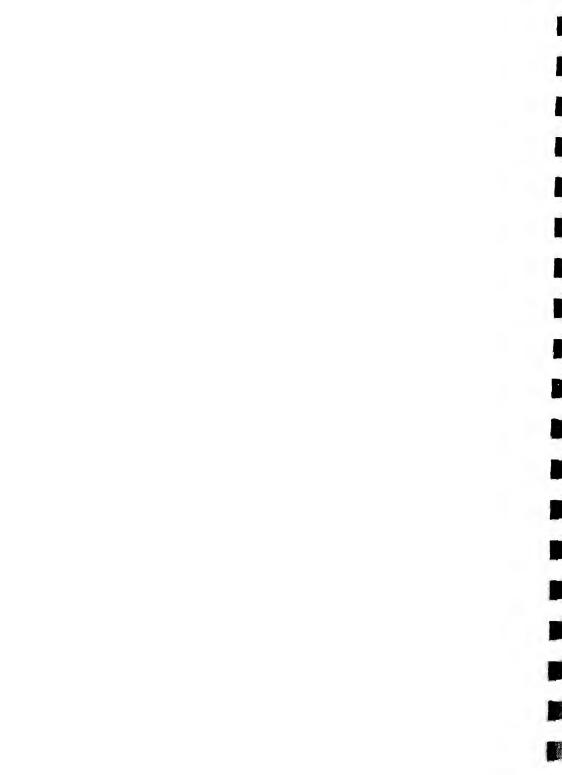
Under this plan, onsite disposal (either 450,000 or 1,000,000 cubic yards) would be implemented immediately rather than as the third component of the phased approach. Since the risk assessment does not consider the time frame of plan implementation, the risks of this plan are essentially identical to the phased approach onsite disposal plan.

#### OFFSITE DISPOSAL PLAN

This plan is similar to the Onsite Disposal Plan with the exception that excavated and harvested material would be disposed of offsite rather than onsite. Since the risks of landfill failure are not being considered, the risks of this plan are essentially identical to the phased approach onsite disposal plan.

#### SELENIUM BIOGEOCHEMISTRY

The major features of selenium chemistry that affect its movement and toxicity are associated with changes in its oxidation state and the resulting differences in chemical properties.



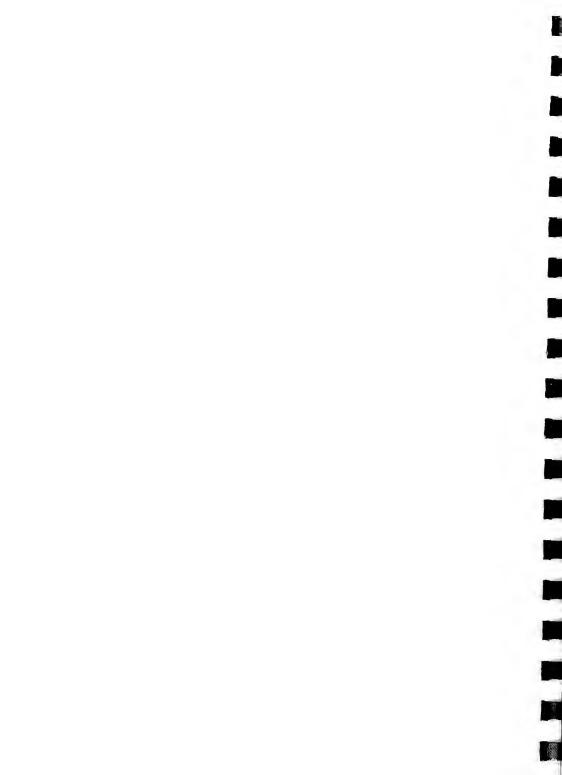
Selenate is the most mobile form of selenium and makes up the majority of selenium that has been delivered to KR via the SLD. Selenium was removed from the drainwater applied to KR, apparently by biological processes, and also from the water as it seeped into the groundwater through the anaerobic sediments, probably by both chemical and biological processes. This selenium which has accumulated in the soils and sediments of KR is in reduced inorganic forms, such as selenite and elemental selenium, and in organic selenium compounds. This accumulated selenium can potentially be mobilized into overlying water by physical, chemical, and biological processes and hence again become bioavailable or may be transported through the food chain via the detritus pathway.

# EXPOSURE PATHWAYS

Potential exposure pathways to residual selenium contamination at KR include food chain or ingestion of contaminated sediments, water, plants, and animals, direct contact and dermal absorption, and air migration and inhalation. All of these are possible pathways for potentially exposed human populations.

Food chain exposure is considered the most significant exposure pathway for wildlife at KR. No information reviewed suggests that dermal exposure or inhalation is a significant exposure pathway for selenium at KR. Fish, however, are directly affected by selenium in the water column but selenium concentrations in surface water under all plans are expected to be below the EPA criterion to protect aquatic life (see Chapter 4).

The fish and wildlife food chain exposure pathways can be divided into subpathways which relate to the properties and movement of selenium. As described in the Kesterson Program Final EIS (USBR 1986), the potential exists for residual soil selenium contamination to move into terrestrial and aquatic food chains. The terrestrial food chain represents the dry areas of KR after implementation of a cleanup alternative (e.g., dry areas of northern ponds under FRP). The aquatic food chain represents either the permanently wet areas (e.g., the southern pond under FRP) or the seasonably wet areas (e.g., the low areas of the northern ponds under the FRP and the low areas of all the ponds under the Onsite Disposal Plan). The aquatic food chain is further divided into a benthic pathway, a water column pathway, and a rooted plant pathway.



## EXPOSED POPULATIONS

#### HUMAN POPULATIONS

Insufficient information exists to perform a quantitative risk assessment for potentially exposed human populations at KR. The Kesterson Program Final EIS (USBR 1986a) presents a thorough, comprehensive analysis of exposure of human populations to KR contaminants, based on the most recent data available. Potentially exposed populations are described below.

#### Foragers

There is a lack of data on the potentially exposed population, such as estimates of the population size, frequency of their use of the area, their dietary habits in general, what items at KR they may consume, their normal dietary intake of selenium, the selenium concentrations of some potential food items, or the amount of food or other contaminated media they may take in. A preliminary ethnographic survey has been recently completed (USBR, 1986c), but further information would be necessary to allow quantitative risk assessment.

# Adjacent Residents

Groundwater exposure is expected to be minimal due to limited selenium migration in the groundwater (USBR 1986a, LBL 1986) and lack of groundwater beneficial use as described in the Kesterson Program Final EIS (USBR 1986a).

# Workers

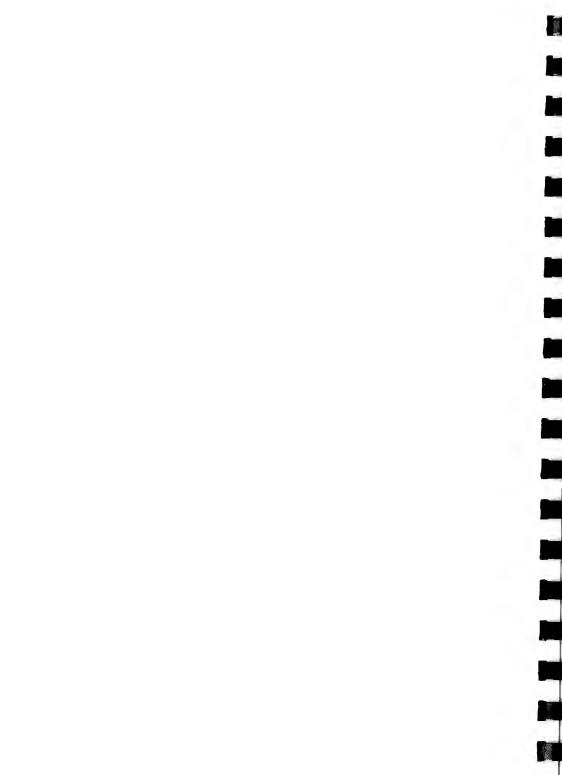
Each alternative has a different exposed population. They include the normal Kesterson workers and researchers, but excavation would also include construction workers.

#### Hunters

Hunting is not allowed at KR. There is no information available on the fraction of total diet that comes from KR of the birds shot at adjacent duck clubs or other offsite areas.

# WILDLIFE POPULATIONS

A list of species present at KR is given in Appendix A and is based on USBR (1986a). The species at KR represent a variety of trophic levels and, hence, selenium exposure potential. Criteria for selection of species for risk characterization are described below.



# IDENTIFICATION OF KEY FISH AND WILDLIFE SPECIES

Appendix A presents a list of wildlife species known or suspected to use KR. It was not possible to perform a quantitative risk assessment for each of these species due to time and budget constraints. However, it is not necessary to perform a risk assessment for each of these species because indicator species can be selected to represent the range of possible exposure pathways and risks. Therefore, a quantitative risk assessment performed for these indicator species will depict risks to the wildlife species using KR.

Selection of indicator or key fish and wildlife species is based on several considerations: they are the terminus of a major KR food chain exposure pathway; impacts of KR on the species have been observed in the past; they are rare or endangered species; they have particularly sensitive life stages; or information is available on the effects of selenium exposure for the species. Not all of the species selected, of course, satisfy all of these criteria. Descriptions of the selected species and rationales for their selection follow.

#### Mallard

The adult mallard is an omnivore with highly variable feeding habits. During nesting and egg-laying, the diet of the adult female changes from one relying primarily on vegetation to one that includes more protein. Exposure during this period was estimated because of the potential impact on reproduction. The mallard duckling is probably very sensitive to selenium toxicity and its diet consists primarily of aquatic invertebrates. Thus, the exposure of the mallard duckling is probably similar to that of the tricolored blackbird (discussed below).

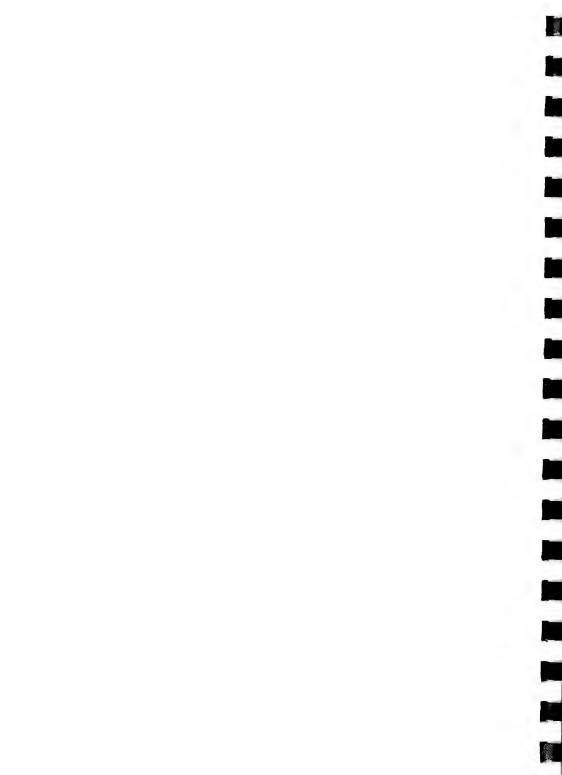
The mallard is an important game species in the Pacific flyway. Another consideration in the selection of mallards is the fact that there is a relatively large amount of selenium and other toxicology data available for them.

#### American Coot

The adult American coot is an aquatic species with little dependence on the benthic community at KR. Feeding habits of the adult coot do not vary substantially with respect to sex. The adult coot feeds primarily on terrestrial and aquatic plants, insects, and other epiphytal fauna.

# Black-necked Stilt

The adult black-necked stilt relies heavily on the littoral benthic epifauna. Stilts are wading birds that tend to eat



epifauna that they can see. Among the four species, stilts rely on the benthic community to the greatest extent.

# Tricolored Blackbird

The young tricolored blackbird (Agelaius tricolor) (through fledgling) is fed almost exclusively adult insects and aquatic insect larvae. The fledgling blackbirds and stilts tend to rely on similar trophic levels for food, although the blackbird diet is not generally comprised of a significant amount of epibenthic species. The status of the tricolored blackbird as a federal candidate for threatened and endangered species listing was also a factor in its selection.

# Eared Grebe

The eared grebe is a fish-eating bird in which KR impacts have been observed in the past (Ohlendorf, et al. 1986a). Although the eared grebe does not exclusively eat fish, it was selected as a key species because fish are an important part of its diet and eared grebes also have limited feeding range, therefore, tending to have a restricted offsite exposure.

# Mosquitofish

The mosquitofish (Gambusia itffinus) is the only fish which currently exists at KR; it is highly resistant to selenium toxicosis. Mosquitofish were introduced into California in 1922 and have since spread to waters throughout the state. The species has a worldwide distribution in warm waters due to its use for mosquito-control purposes. Mosquitofish are omnivorous and opportunistic feeders utilizing whatever organisms are most abundant near the waters surface. The diet may consist of algae, zooplankton, fishes, terrestrial insects and aquatic invertebrates (Moyle 1976). Under crowded conditions or periods when animal food is scarce, they may feed extensively on filamentous algae and diatoms (Moyle 1976). Mosquitofish were selected because they can survive with high tissue selenium levels and thus may represent a concentrated source of selenium.

## San Joaquin Valley Kit Fox

The kit fox was included as the terrestrial food chain receptor because it is a federal and state-listed endangered species. USFWS surveys indicate that kit foxes forage at KR as there have been approximately 25 confirmed observations of this species in the vicinity of KR since 1984. The frequency of sitings has apparently increased in the last several years. The kit fox diet consists of both large grassland animals such as rabbits, hares, California ground squirrels and small mammals, including California voles,



deer, mice and other small rodents. Incidental food items include birds, reptiles, and insects. Little data exist regarding the specific diet of the kit fox in the KR area and the ratio of quantity of food obtained in the vicinity of KR to the total prey consumption of a typical kit fox is unknown. Furthermore, the size of the kit fox population near KR is not well known. USBR has funded a kit fox study to address these issues.

## ESTIMATES OF KEY SPECIES POPULATION SIZES

The estimates of population densities and estimates of past KR-related mortalities given in Table 3-1 are based on data from published literature, unpublished surveys by the USFWS and California Department of Fish and Game (DFG), consultation with personnel from these agencies, and other local experts. These data are provided to put in perspective the relative risks of selenium exposure of each population. They are not intended to indicate effects of past exposure to selenium at KR. The population data are indices of density and in most cases the actual values are unknown. They are presented here only for the purposes of assessing the relative risks of fish and wildlife contamination under the cleanup alternatives being considered at KR. Losses given for KR include all sources of mortality that have been directly observed, including predation, disease, and chemical-induced toxicosis. The numbers do not reflect reproductive failures that migrant birds may experience on their breeding grounds that could be due to contaminants acquired at KR.

As Table 3-1 suggests, the risks of contamination-induced mortality vary greatly between these species. The data for mallards suggest that this species is at low risk due to its small population at KR (probably due to the hazing program) relative to its San Joaquin Valley and statewide populations. Both the American coot and black-necked stilt suffered significant mortalities at KR during the period 1983-85, but small numbers of birds (4 percent) were "lost" relative to their San Joaquin Valley and statewide populations. In contrast, the tricolored blackbird population at KR suffered an almost total nesting failure in 1986. Only about 100 fledglings were observed from a colony of approximately 47,000 breeding adults. This total represents more than half the San Joaquin Valley population and more than one-third of the statewide population. The tricolored blackbird is largely endemic to California, so the statewide population approximates the global population for this species (DeHaven pers. comm.). Preliminary USFWS data suggest the cause of this mortality of tricolored blackbird nestlings was due to acute

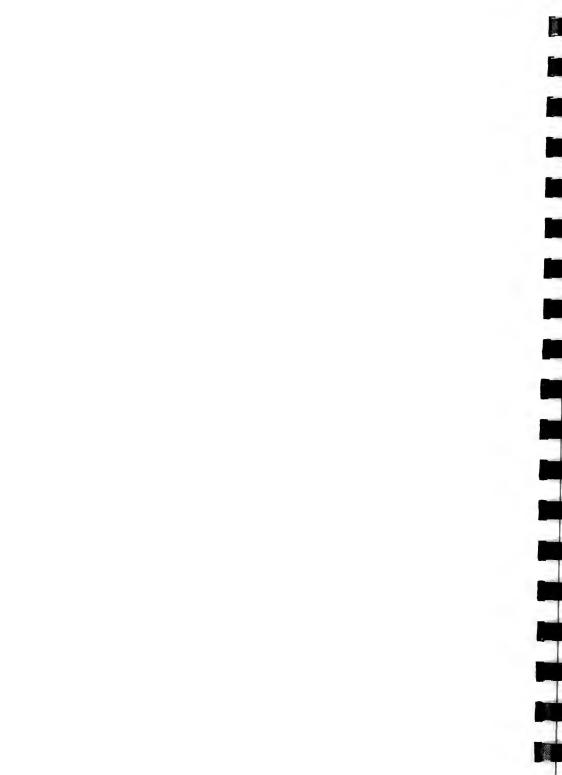


Table 3-1 KESTERSON BIRD POPULATIONS AND MORTALITIES

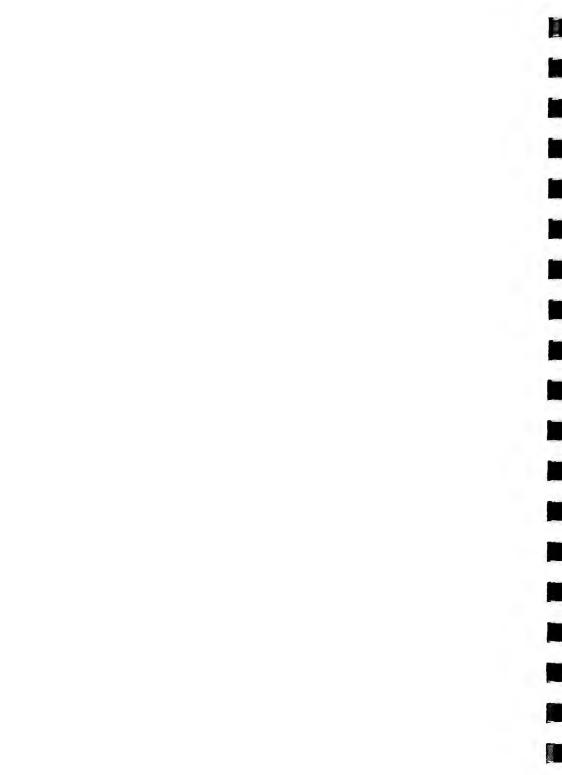
	Mallard	American Coot	Black-Necked Stilt	Tricolored Blackbird	Eared	San Joaquin Kit Fox
Kesterson Reservoir Mortality	1 found dead in 1986 <sup>a</sup> 17–22 ducks "lost"e	438 "lost" in 1983	197 "lost" in 1985 <sup>e</sup>	82,150 "lost" eggs and chicks in 1986	411 "lost" in 1983 <sup>e</sup>	No data
Kesterson Reservoir Population	45- <u>1</u> 00 per day	9,489 <sup>f</sup>	50-60 individual 47,000 <sup>b</sup> nesting in 1986 <sup>a</sup>	47,000 <sup>b</sup>	17 <sup>n</sup>	15-20 <sup>m</sup>
San Joaquin Valley Population	89,142 <sup>c</sup>	216,623 <sup>c</sup>	No data	85,850 <sup>i</sup>	No data	5,294 <sup>k</sup>
California Population	435,421 <sup>C</sup>	427,415 <sup>C</sup>	~100,000 <sup>9</sup>	133,000 <sup>i</sup>	730,250 <sup>1</sup>	10,000-14,800 <sup>j</sup>
Pacific Flyway Population	1,759,800 <sup>d</sup>	562,400 <sup>d</sup>	No data	No data <sup>i</sup>	No data	Same as statewide population
9	; 	;				

This value does not reflect nestling <sup>a</sup>Personal communication from Mary Coakley, wildlife hazer, 10-2-86. mortalities.

 $<sup>^{</sup>m b}$ Unpublished USFWS hazing data from Kesterson Reservoir - March 1986.

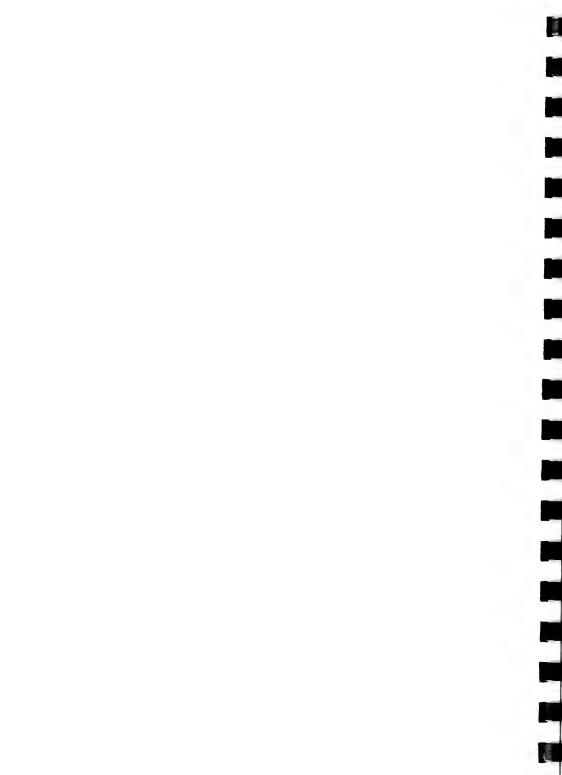
<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>C</sup>Unpublished USFWS data, 1973-77 average from Pacific Flyway mid-winter waterfowl survey--1986. d Unpublished USFWS data, 1955-85 average from Pacific Flyway mid-winter waterfowl survey.

Some losses were due to predation, but these cannot be accurately separated from possible mortality due to Includes dead or deformed embryos or chicks and those presumed to have hatched but that failed to survive. enpublished memo from Dr. Harry Ohlendorf to Mr. Ken Anderson of the General Accounting Office, 5/16/86. selenium toxicosis.



# Table 3-1 (Continued)

- $^{
  m f}$ Maximum average daily use total from unpublished USFWS data 1984-86--see Draft EIS.
- 9"Ballpark" estimate by Ron Jurek, DFG, 10-2-86.
- heough calculation assuming about 23,500 nesting pairs, a clutch size of 3.5, and mortalities of all but 100 fledglings.
- Note that this species is largely endemic to California--so the statewide population approximately equals global population. Population estimates by Rich DeHaven (USFWS) for the period 1969-1972.
  - Jange of adult population estimates for California by Morrell (1975).
- Kased on adult population estimates by Morrell (1975) for Kern, Tulare, Kings, Fresno, San Benito, Merced, Stanislaus, and San Joaquin Counties.
- Maximum extrapolated population estimate from Mono Lake, August 30, 1976 (Winkler et al. 1977); actual statewide population is probably much higher than this (Gould personal communication).
- Total adult population in adjacent 25,000-acre range. 5 individuals (including pups) have been simultaneously at Kesterson Reservoir. "Paveglio (personal communication b.).
- Peak use is 125-175 <sup>n</sup>Paveglio (personal communication b.). Average daily use for 1982, 1984, and 1985. during migration.



selenium toxicosis from eating contaminated insects (Paveglio pers. comm. a).

## ESTIMATES OF TROPHIC RELATIONSHIPS

Trophic relationships of the key species are summarized in Figures 3-1 through 3-6. These are based on discussions with ecologists familiar with KR and on studies of the ecology of the key species conducted elsewhere (Martin, et al. 1951, Pough 1951, Johnsgard 1975).

# ADAPTATION FOR RISK ASSESSMENT

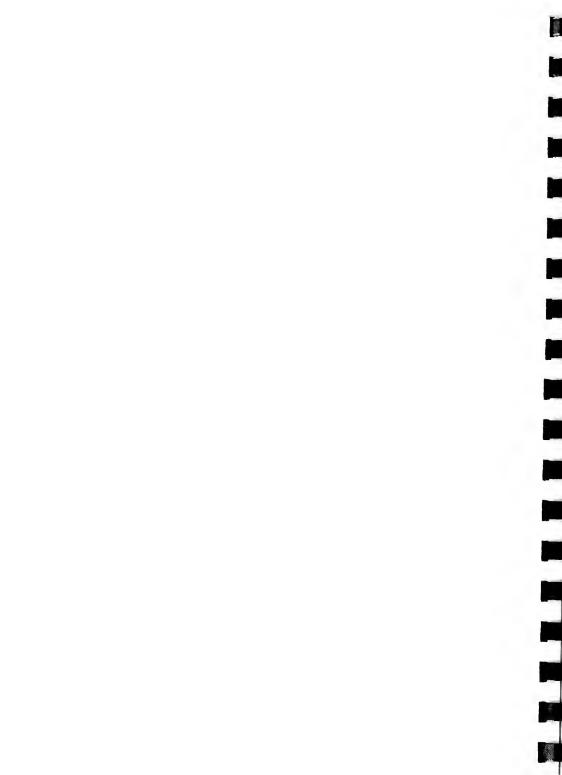
Evaluation of the risk of KR cleanup alternatives to fish and wildlife requires, for each cleanup alternative, a prediction of the exposure of wildlife to selenium. The transfer of selenium through the food chain and concentrations of selenium in food groups were estimated for each cleanup alternative using empirical relationships (transfer factors) derived from studies conducted at KR and elsewhere. The empirical transfer factors served as the basis for the mathematical model used to predict the relationship between selenium in each trophic level and, ultimately, the exposure of key species to selenium. The model is described in Chapter 5.

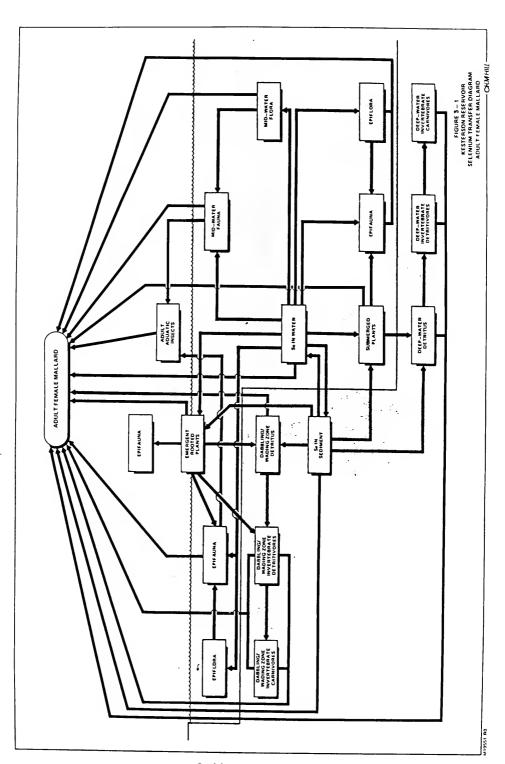
In order to model and predict selenium transfer and dietary exposure to the selenium transfer pathways shown in Figures 3-1 through 3-6 were simplified. Schematic representations of selenium transfer and exposure used for prediction purposes are shown in Figure 3-7 through 3-9. The simplified selenium transfer diagram was developed in consultation with USFWS personnel after the complex pathways were identified for each of the key species.

The simplified pathways contain all of the basic selenium transfer pathways present in the complex transfer diagrams (Figures 3-1 through 3-6). Although uptake pathways exist that are not depicted in the simplified transfer diagrams (e.g. direct uptake of dissolved selenium by herbivores and carnivores), transfer factors are derived to predict the change in concentrations between compartments or trophic levels that occurs as a result of all uptake pathways. In other words, the concentrations of selenium in a particular compartment is expressed solely as function of the concentrations in the adjacent compartment.

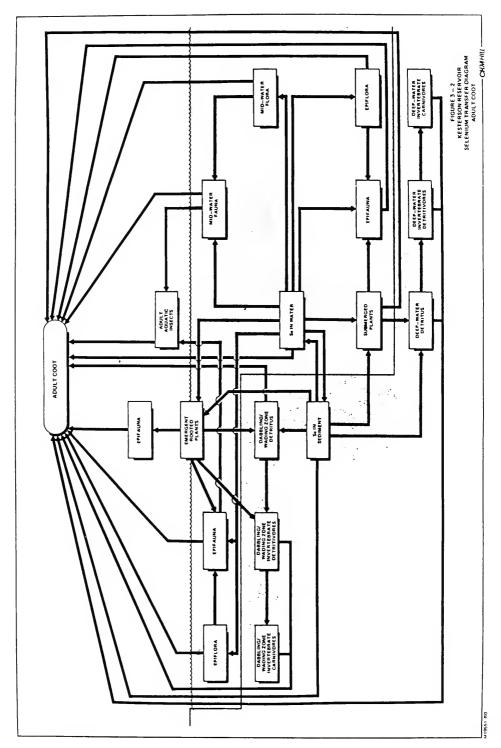
The simplified selenium transfer diagrams contain all of the basic selenium compartments present in the complex pathways. Since data from KR show that many groups contain similar levels of selenium, it is not necessary to distinguish between them for modeling purposes. For instance, there is a

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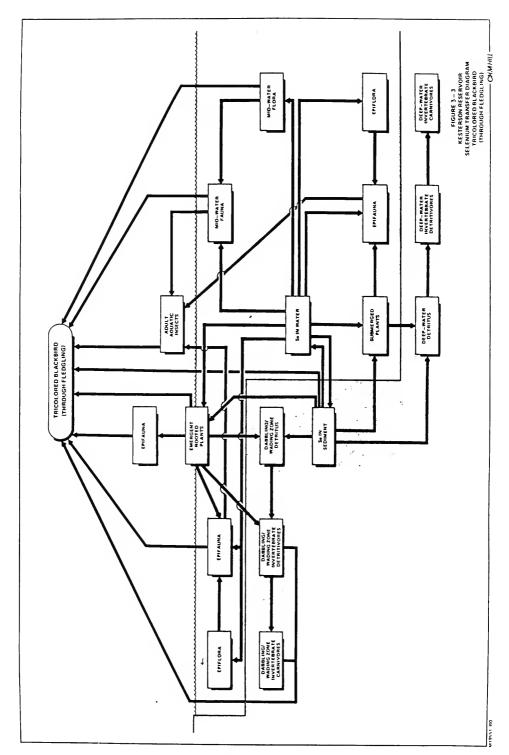


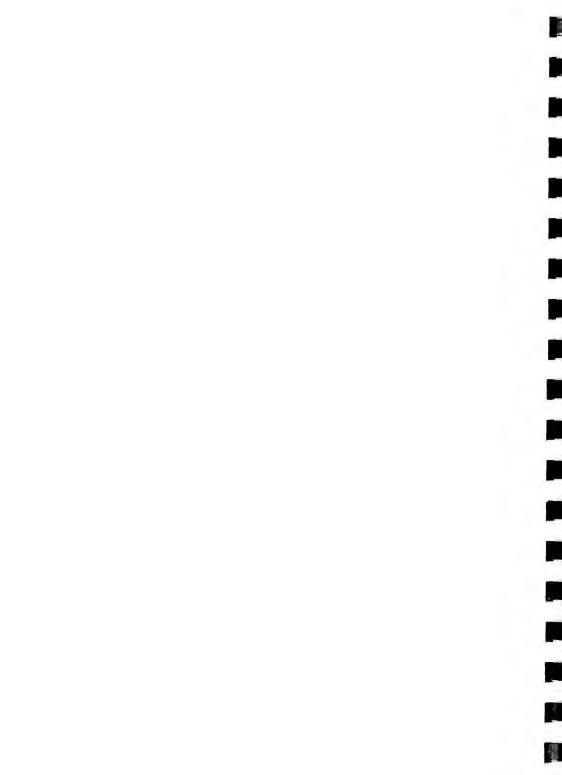


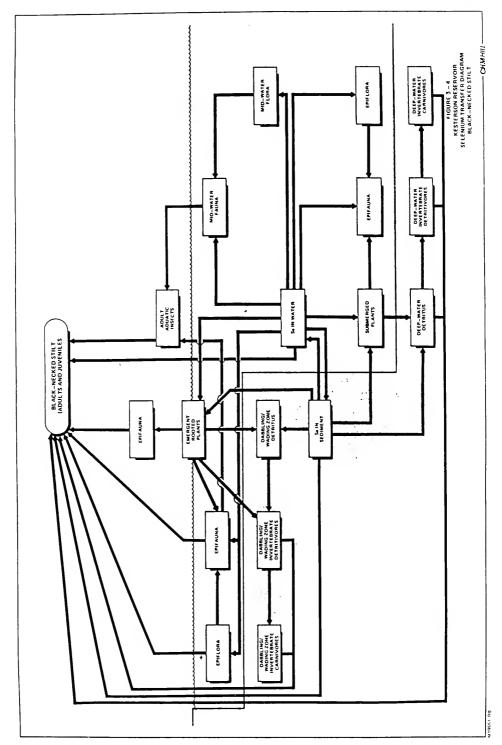
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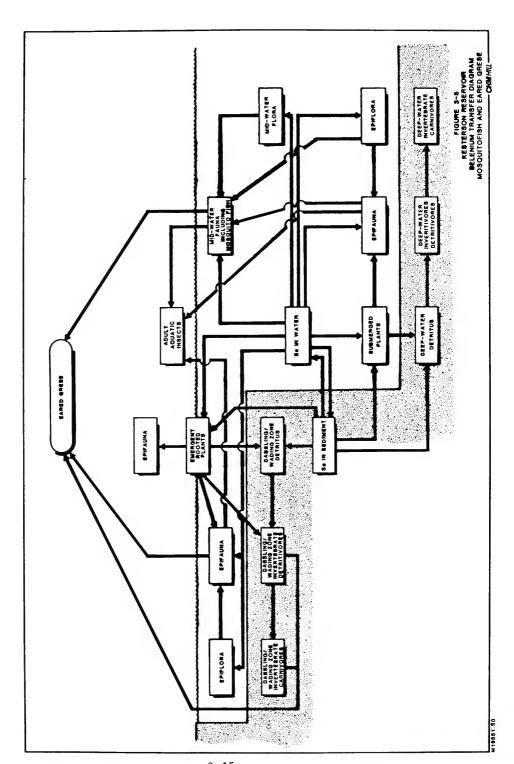


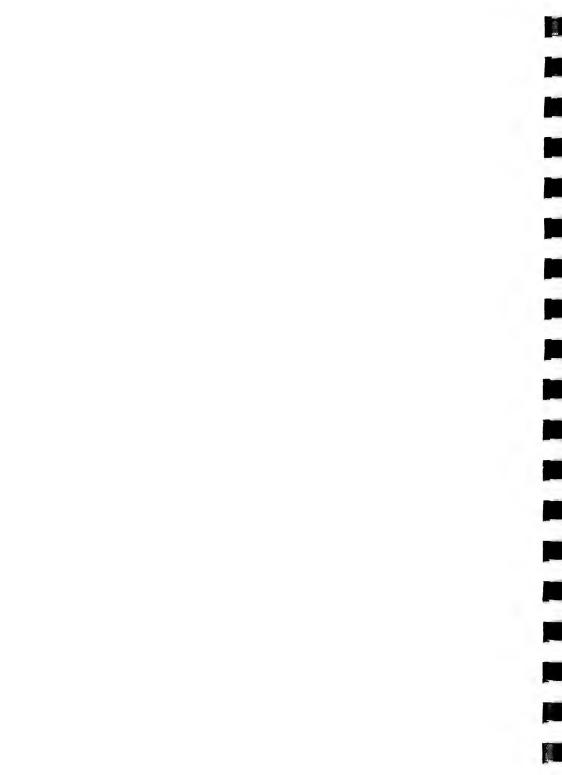


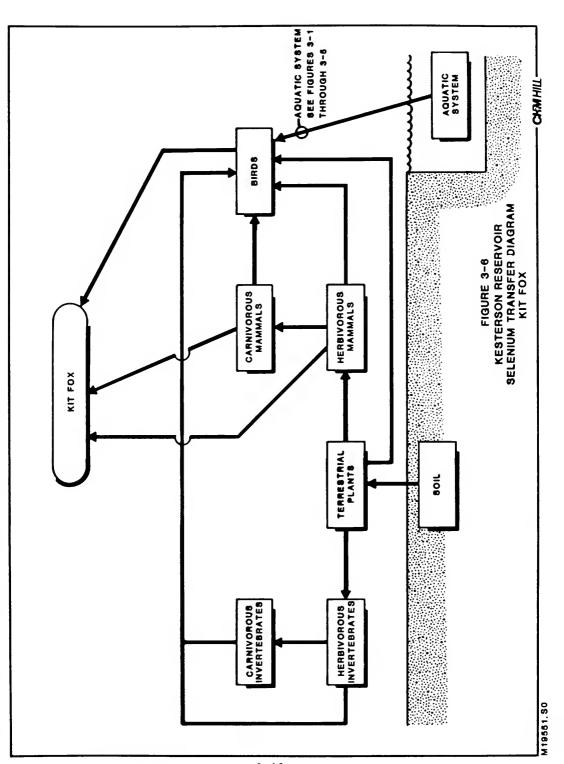




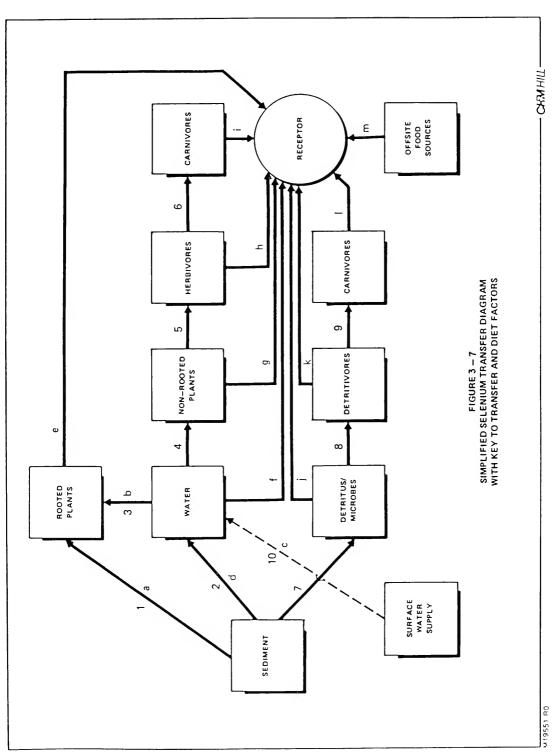


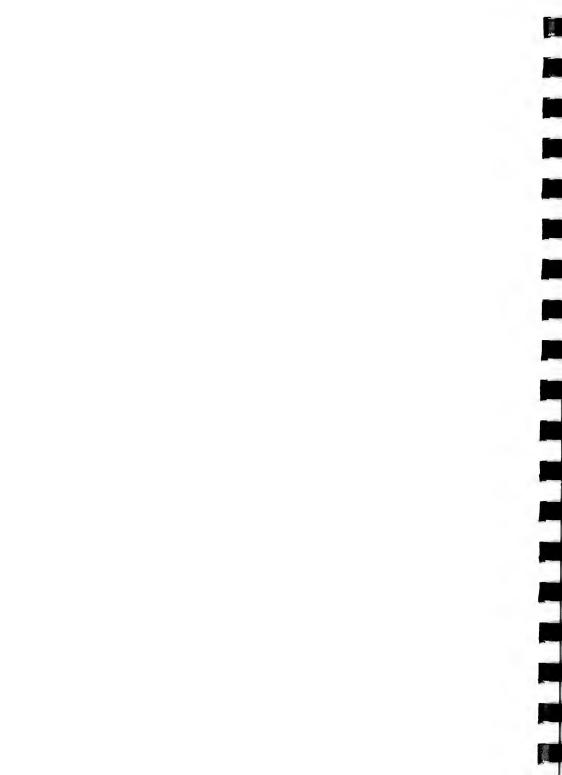


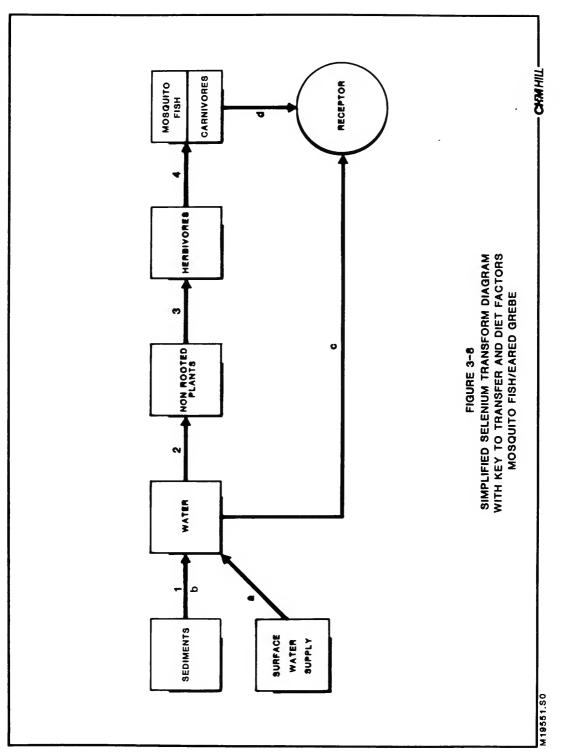


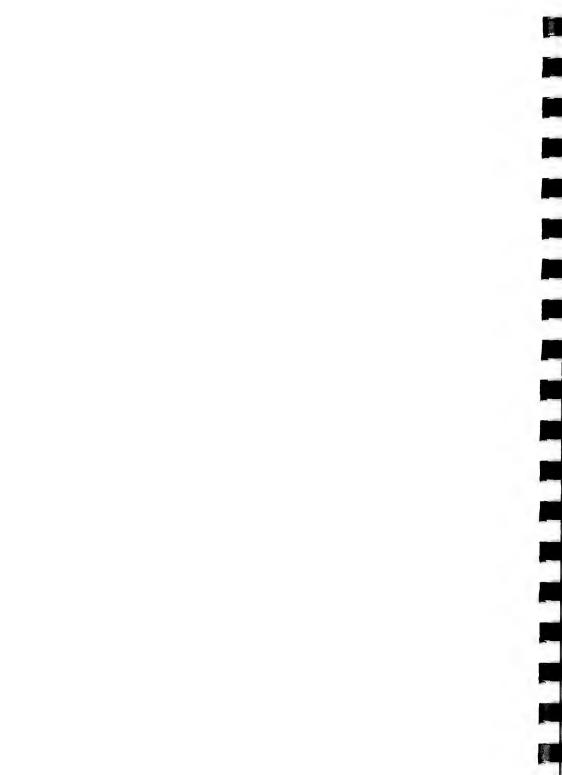




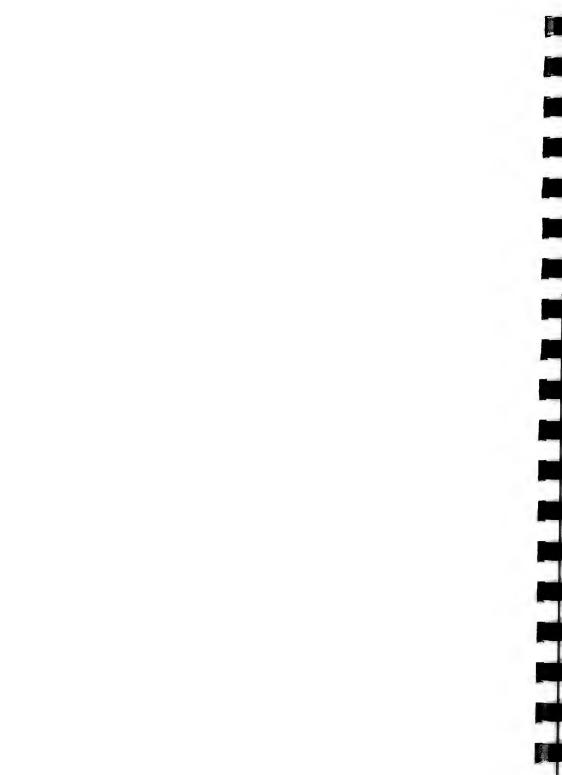








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variety of non-rooted aquatic plants present at KR, including Nitella, attached diatoms, attached green algae, etc. How-ever, since rooted plants can acquire selenium from sediment and water (and selenium levels in each will be affected differently by each cleanup alternative), selenium levels in rooted plants are expected to respond differently than non-rooted plants to implementation of each alternative.

Associated with the simplified selenium transfer diagram for each of the key organisms are estimates of the selenium concentrations in each compartment (e.g., sediment, water, nonrooted plants, etc.), transfer factors, and diet factors. Associated with each mean estimate is a variance estimate (plus or minus one standard deviation) that reflects empirical variability and confidence in empirical and literature values.

Important aspects of the simplified pathways, including explanations of how key values were determined, are discussed below. Data used to derive transfer factors and their sources are summarized in Table 3-2. The transfer factors are given in Tables 3-3 through 3-5. Other important aspects of applicability of the simplified selenium transfer diagrams to risk assessment are discussed in Chapter 5.

### SEDIMENT

Since water applied to KR will have very low selenium concentration (less than 1  $\mu g/l$ ), the major potential source of selenium for biological uptake is the soil. Selenium can enter the biosphere directly from selenium forms in the sediments or it can dissolve in water that will be present in the ponds as described in each alternative.

The amount of selenium currently present in sediments is quite variable but tends to be greater in southern ponds than in northern ponds. In the FRP alternative, where no removal of sediment is involved, a value of 7 mg/kg ±7 (±1 standard deviation) is used. This concentration is representative of the southern ponds which have relatively high sediment selenium concentrations (see Table 4-2, USBR 1986a). The variance component of this estimate reflects the spatial heterogeneity of selenium measured at KR. After excavating sediment with selenium concentrations greater than 4 mg/kg (Onsite Disposal Plan-1), average sediment selenium concentrations will be 3 mg/kg ±2. The Onsite Disposal Plan-2 will result in a sediment selenium concentration of 1.5 mg/kg ±1.

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# Table 3-2 SUMMARY OF DATA USED TO DERIVE TRANSFER FACTORS<sup>a</sup> (±1 STANDARD DEVIATION)

	_	Non-I	Piscivorou	ıs Bird	Pathway	
	Past	F]	lexible Re	esponse	Onsite D	isposal
	Value	Source	Value	Source	Value	Source
Sediment	7±7	1	7±7	1	3±2,b 1.5±1	ı°
Rooted Plants	26±18	1	26±18	1	26±18	1
Water	300	1	2-15	2	2-15	2
Non-Rooted Plants	56±5.5	2	0.3-20 <sup>C</sup>	4	0.3-20 <sup>c</sup>	4
Non-Benthic Herbivores	127±23	2,3	e	4	e a ga	4
Non-Benthic Carnivores	92±19	2,3	2 <b>-</b> 270 <sup>d</sup>	4	2 <b>-270</b> <sup>a</sup>	4
Detritus	26±18	5	26±18	5	26±18	5
Detritivores	56±5.5	2,3	56±5.5	2,3	56±5.5	2,3
Benthic Carnivores	127±23	2,3	127±23	2,3	127±23	2,3
		Fish/	/Piscivoro	ous Bird	Pathway	
Sediment	7±7	1	7±7	1	3±2, 1.5±1	ı°
Water	300	1	2-15	2	2-15	2
Non-Rooted Plants	56±5.5	2	2-15 0.3-20	2 4	2-15 0.3-20	4
Non-Benthic Herbivores	127±23	2,3	g	4	e	4
Mosquitofish/Carnivores	104±25	2	2-270 <sup>8</sup>	4	2-270 <sup>đ</sup>	4
	Terrestrial Pathway					
Soil	3±2	1	3±2	1	3±2, <sub>b</sub>	1°
Terrestrial Plants	30±10	1	30±10	1	30±10	1
Herbivores	10±24	6	10±24	6	10±24	6
Carnivores	48±17	6	48±17	6	48±17	6

#### Data Sources:

- 1 USBR 1986a. Standard QA/QC procedures, all data sources given in EIS.
- 2 LBL 1986. LBL is developing QA/QC procedures, and therefore, data are not final.
- 3 Ohlendorf et al. 1986. QA/QC procedures specified.
- 4 Lemly 1985. QA/QC procedures not specified.
- 5 No specific reference. Assumed majority of detritus comprised of rooted macrophytes.
- 6 Clark, personal communication.

Note: All standard deviations estimated by dividing range by 6 except those from LBL (1986) which were given in reference. This is based on the assumptions of a normal distribution and that >99% of values are within ±3 stand. dev.

 $<sup>^{\</sup>text{a}}\text{All}$  units mg/kg (d.w.) except water which is  $\mu\text{g}/\text{l}.$ 

 $<sup>^{</sup>m b}$ Two values given for Onsite Disposal No. 1 and 2, respectively.

CMean value from USBR (1986a)

 $<sup>^{\</sup>rm d}_{\rm Range}$  only was given in reference.

e Inferred from reference data. SAT72/89

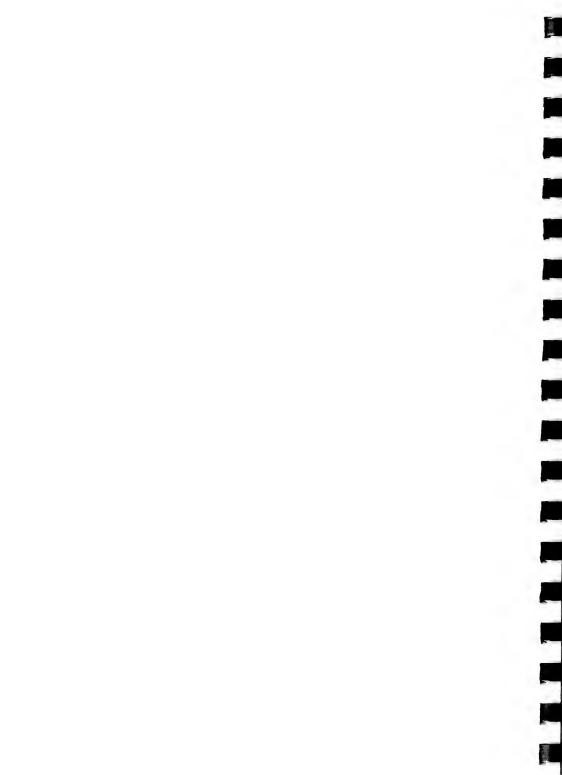


Table 3-3
TRANSFER AND DIET FACTORS FOR SIMPLIFIED SELENIUM
TRANSFER DIAGRAM FOR MALLARD, AMERICAN COOT,
TRICOLORED BLACKBIRD, AND BLACK-NECKED STILT
(Standard Deviations are in parentheses)

	Past Condition	Flexible Response	Onsite Disposal l <sup>a</sup>	Onsite Disposal 2
Sediment Conc. (mg/kg d.w.) Surface Water Supply (mg/1)	7 (7) 0.3	7 (7) <sup>b</sup> 0	3 (2) O	1.5 (1)
Transfer Factors				
1 Sediment - Rooted Plants 2 Sediment - Water 3 Water - Rooted Plants 4 Water - Non-rooted Plants 5 Non-rooted Plants - Herbivores	2.8 (3) 0.0003-0.002 81 (21) 187 (22) 2.2 (0.8)	2.8 (3) 0.0003-0.002 81 (21) 500 (50) 4.0 (2.0)	2.8 (3) 0.0003-0.002 81 (21) 500 (50) 4.0 (2.0)	2.8 (3) 0.0003-0.002 81 (21) 500 (50) 4.0 (2.0)
6 Herbivores - Carnivores 7 Sediment - Detritus/ Microbes	0.7 (0.3)	1.5 (0.5)	1.5 (0.5)	1.5 (0.5)
8 Detritivores - Detritivores - Detritivores - Carnivores	2.2 (0.8) 0.7 (0.3)	2.2 (0.8) 0.7 (0.3)	2.2 (0.8) 0.7 (0.3)	2.2 (0.8) 0.7 (0.3)
Relative Supply Factors <sup>d</sup>				
a Sediment - Rooted Plants b Water - Rooted Plants c Surface Water Supply - Wat d Sediment - Water	25 75 cer 100 0	25 75 0 100	25 75 0 100	25 75 0 100

# DIET FACTORS<sup>E</sup> FOR PAST CONDITION, FLEXIBLE RESPONSE, AND ONSITE DISPOSAL

		Adult Female	Adult	Tricolored	Adult
		Mallard	American	Blackbird	Black-necked
		Nesting	Coot	Nestling	Stilt
е	Rooted Plants - Receptor	14 (3)	30 (5)	3 (2)	0
f	Water - Receptor	5 (2)	5 (2)	0	5 (2)
g	Non-rooted Plants - Receptor	33 (7)	18 (3)	2 (1)	0
h	Herbivores - Receptor	41 (6)	35 (5)	79 (8)	38 (5)
í	Carnivores(1) - Receptor	7 (2)	7 (2)	16 (5)	7 (3)
j	Detritus/Microbes - Receptor	0	1 (1)	0	5 (1)
k	Detritivores - Receptor	0	2 (1)	0	38 (5)
1	Carnivores(2) - Receptor	0	2 (1)	0	7 (3)
п	Offsite Food Sources	0	0	0	0

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup>For the seasonally Wet Areas. Also applicable to FRP seasonally wet areas in the northern ponds.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>b</sup>For ponds that will be wet all year (southern ponds).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>C</sup>Uniform distribution, therefore range is given.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>d</sup>In cases where two routes of selenium supply exist, their ratio of supply is defined.

ePercent of total diet from each compartment.



# Table 3-4 TRANSFER AND DIET FACTORS FOR SIMPLIFIED SELENIUM TRANSFER DIAGRAM FOR EARED GREBE AND MOSQUITOFISH (Standard Deviations are in Parentheses)

		Past Condition	Flexible Response	Onsite Disposal l <sup>a</sup>	Onsite Disposal 2
	diment Conc. (mg/kg d.w.) rface Water Supply (mg/l)	7 (7) 0.3	7 (7) <sup>b</sup>	3(2)	1.5 (1)
Tr	ansfer Factors				
1	Sediment - Water <sup>C</sup>	0.0003-0.002	0.0003-0.002	0.0003-0.002	0.0003-0.002
2	Water - Non-rooted Plants	187 (22)	500 (50)	500 (50)	500 (50)
3	Non-rooted Plants -				
	Herbivores	2.2 (0.8)	4.0 (2.0)	4.0 (2.0)	4.0 (2.0)
4	Herbivores - Carnivores	0.7 (0.3)	1.5 (0.5)	1.5 (0.5)	1.5 (0.5)
Re	lative Supply Factors <sup>d</sup>				
a	Surface Water Supply - Water	er 100	0	0	0
Þ	Sediment - Water	0	ŏ	Ö	Ö

# DIET FACTORS<sup>e</sup> FOR PAST CONDITIONS, FLEASIBLE RESPONSE, AND ONSITE DISPOSAL

	Western Grebe	Mosquito- fish	
<pre>c Water - Receptor d Carnivores(1) - Receptor</pre>	10 (5) 90 (5)	N/A N/A	

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup>For the seasonally wet areas. Also applicable to FRP seasonally wet areas in the northern ponds.

 $<sup>^{\</sup>mathrm{b}}\mathrm{For}$  ponds that will be wet all year (southern ponds).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>C</sup>Uniform distribution, therefore range is given.

 $<sup>^{\</sup>rm d}\, {\rm In}$  cases where two routes of selenium supply exist, their ratio is defined. N/A = Not applicable - see text.

ePercent of total diet from each compartment.

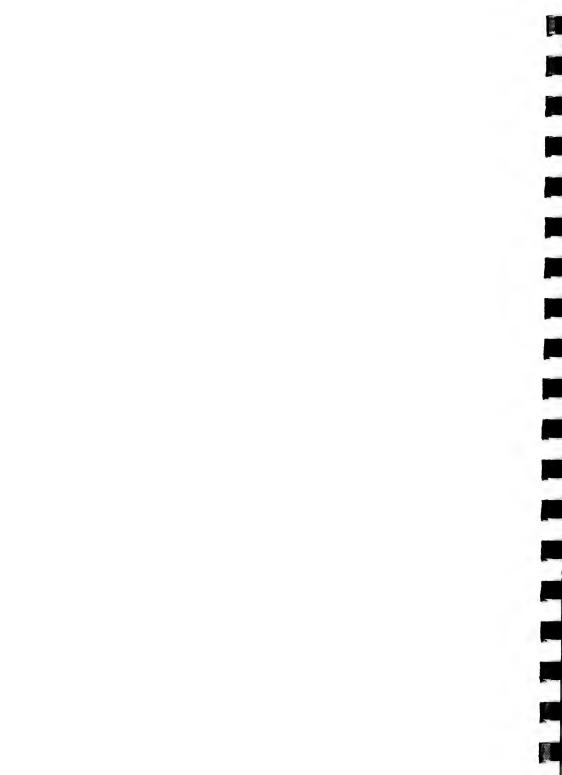


Table 3-5
TRANSFER AND DIET FACTORS FOR SIMPLIFIED SELENIUM
TRANSFER DIAGRAM FOR SAN JOAQUIN VALLEY KIT FOX
(Standard Deviations are in parentheses)

	Past Condition	Flexible Response	Onsite Disposal l <sup>a</sup>	Onsite Disposal 2
Sediment Conc. (mg/kg d.w.) Surface Water Supply (mg/l)	3 (2) 0.3	3 (2) <sup>b</sup>	3(2)	1.5 (1)
Transfer Factors				
<pre>1 Soil - Terrestrial     Plants 2 Terrestrial Plants -     Herbivores 3 Herbivores - Carnivores</pre>	10 (5) .3 (.3) 4 (2)	10 (5) .3 (.3) 4 (2)	10 (5) .3 (.3) 4 (2)	10 (5) .3 (.3) 4 (2)
Diet Factors <sup>C</sup>				
a Herbivores - Receptor b Carnivores - Receptor c Offsite Food Sources	22.5 (20) 2.5 (2) 75 (25)	9 (5) 1 (1) 90 (10)	9 (5) 1 (1) 90 (10)	9 (5) 1 (1) 90 (10)

 $<sup>{}^{\</sup>overline{a}} For \ the \ seasonally \ wet \ areas. Also applicable to FRP seasonally wet areas in the northern ponds.$ 

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>b</sup>For ponds that will be wet all year (southern ponds).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>C</sup>Percent of total diet from each compartment.



#### NON-PISCIVOROUS AQUATIC BIRD EXPOSURE PATHWAY

# Aquatic Pathway

One of the three pathways of selenium transfer into and through the food chain is the aquatic pathway. Recent studies by LBL (1986) have indicated that selenium flux from sediments to "clean" water (less than 2 µg/l) will result in a concentration in the water column selenium concentration of between approximately 2 and 15  $\mu$ g/l. They have found at KR that introduction of clean water resulted in a water column concentration of less than 10 µq/l. Further, their laboratory experiments suggest that contaminated sediments can cause up to a 15 µg/l increase in water column concentration. selenium concentrations in the water to be applied to KR will be less than 2 µg/l. Based on these data, we expect the selenium in the water column to be between 2 and 15  $\mu$ g/1. The empirical relationship between the concentrations of selenium in sediments in the Flexible Response Plan (7 mg/kg) and those expected in the water column (2-15  $\mu$ g/1), was used to calculate a range of transfer factors of 0.0003-0.002. This range of transfer factors was used in the model to calculate water column selenium concentration for cleanup alternatives. Unlike other transfer factors it is described with a uniform distribution rather than the log normal distribution associated with the other transfer factors. Therefore, no variance component is given.

The transfer factor between water and non-rooted plants at KR (Nitella and aufwuchs) was calculated to be 187 ±22 using paired observations of selenium concentrations in water and unrooted plants. This transfer factor reflects the relationship at a water selenium concentrations very much higher than is expected to result from either cleanup alternative. Since the uptake and metabolism of selenium probably does not have a linear relationship with concentrations in water, a transfer factor appropriate for the predicted range (2-15  $\mu$ g/l) was derived from literature reviewed by Lemly (1985a) and Ohlendorf, et al. (1986). The same procedure was followed for derivation of other transfer factors in the aquatic food chain. Transfer factors derived from literature were generally about two to three times higher than those observed in high water selenium concentrations at KR.

## Benthic Pathway

The benthic epifauna and infauna can acquire selenium from overlying water and from sediments with which they live in close association. We assumed in our simplified selenium transfer diagram that sediments would be the major source of selenium available to benthic organisms since the concentrations in water are expected to decline substantially in both



alternatives. Since the sediment selenium concentrations are not expected to change in the flexible response alternative and change by only a factor of two to three (versus 10 to 100 times in the water for the aquatic pathway), the empirical relationship between selenium concentrations in the various selenium compartments (e.g., sediment, detritus, etc.) at KR was used to determine the selenium transfer factors.

# Rooted Plant Pathway

Rooted aquatic and semi-aquatic plants at KR can potentially acquire selenium from both sediment/soil, via the root/rhizome system, and water, via the leaf tissues. There are no definitive studies describing selenium uptake pathways of aquatic plants (Denny 1980). However, studies involving other aquatic angiosperms and compounds other than selenium suggest that aquatic plants are somewhat opportunistic and will acquire ions from the most bio-available source (McRoy and Barsdate 1970, Nicholas and Keeney 1976, Faraday and Churchill 1979, Brinkhuis et al. 1980, Denny 1980, Kenworthy et al. 1982). Sculthorpe (1967) indicates that tissues typically associated with nutrient translocation are reduced or vestigial in most aquatic angiosperms. Based on these studies, we have inferred an approximate ratio of sediment to aquatic sources of selenium uptake by aquatic plants of 1:3. This is shown in Table 3-3 as a "relative supply factor." These studies indicate that metal ions are not transported from sediments to the water column.

# Diets of Key Non-Piscivorous Aquatic Bird Species

An estimate of selenium exposure requires a quantification of the fraction of the whole diet of each organism (diet factor) that is contributed by each compartment contained in the simplified selenium transfer diagram. A review of scientific literature was conducted for each species to quantify their food habits (Martin et al. 1951, Pough 1951, Johnsgard 1975, Bellrose 1976). Qualitative data of Ohlendorf, et al. (pers. comm.) support the estimates of diet factors given in Table 3-2. The key to the labels associated with each value in Table 3-2 is given in Figures 3-7 through 3-9.

Some species had dietary preferences that changed very little with life stage or season. The preferences of other species changed substantially with season or life stage. Ranges of food preferences were developed, as appropriate for the specific life stage, sex, etc., of the four species.

This procedure for determining these values is imperfect since the key species probably do not distinguish between, for instance, epiphytic herbivores and carnivores. In such



situations, where selection is approximately a function of their relative numbers and availability, the ratio of the relative mass of the two groups was used to estimate the ratio of their consumption. Mass units were used because selenium data are so expressed. For example, if it was determined from the literature that the diet of species X is 50 percent (by weight) epiphytic invertebrates, data from KR would be used to determine their relative availability. Data indicate that the ratio (mass) of herbivores to carnivores is approximately 5:1. The dietary percentage would be determined using the 5:1 ratio, as follows:

Herbivores 
$$\frac{5}{6} \times 0.50 = 0.42$$
  
Carnivores  $\frac{1}{6} \times 0.50 = 0.08$ 

Estimates of the variability in diet and confidence in estimates of mean dietary percentages are reflected in the variance term associated with each mean.

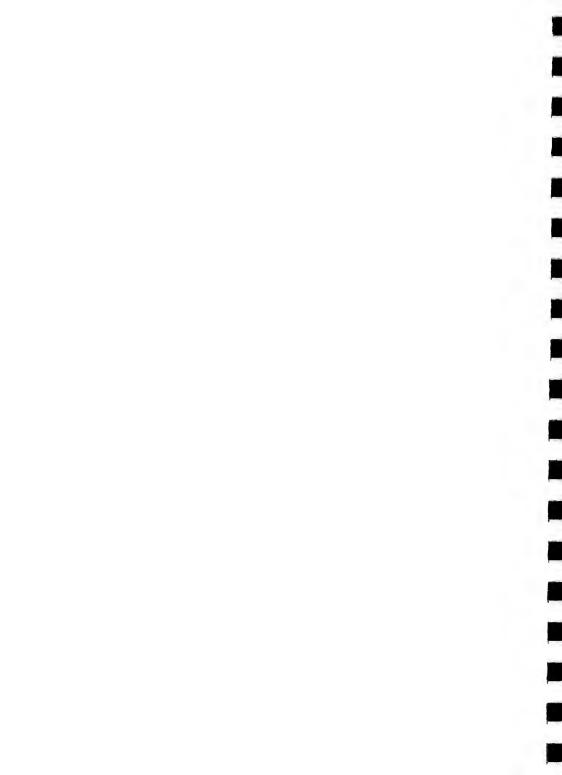
The simplified selenium transfer diagram also provides for consumption of uncontaminated food from areas adjacent to KR. This component of the diet was minimized so that "worst case" estimates of selenium exposure would be obtained.

## FISH/PISCIVOROUS BIRD PATHWAY

The fish/piscivorous bird pathway was developed following a similar procedure to that used in the development of the non-piscivorous aquatic bird exposure pathway. The fish/fish-eating bird pathway described in Figure 3-5 contains only the aquatic pathway and not the benthic or rooted plant pathway. The reasons for omitting the benthic pathway are that mosquitofish do not use the benthos, and introduction of fish that do use the benthos is not anticipated at KR. The rooted plant pathway is also not included in the simplified selenium transfer diagram for the fish/piscivorous bird exposure pathway because rooted plants are not a component of the fish/piscivorous bird food chain.

# Fish

Mosquitofish are included in the aquatic carnivore category because of their functional similarity to other members of the category at KR. Mosquitofish under past conditions have been found at KR to have similar selenium levels as that of other carnivores such as odonate larvae (USBR 1986a, LBL 1986). Although mosquitofish consume some non-rooted plants, their selenium concentrations can be described as a function of selenium levels in herbivores. Therefore, the same transfer factors are used in the fish/piscivorous bird



pathway as were developed for the non-piscivorous aquatic bird pathway.

#### Birds

The eared grebe was selected as the ultimate receptor in the fish/piscivorous bird pathway. The eared grebe does not search for food over a broad habitat range and, therefore, it was assumed that all of its food was obtained at KR and that fish constitute all of its diet. Eared grebes also feed on other types of organisms at KR such as soldierfly larvae. However, since the intent is to model exposure of a fish-eating bird, fish were emphasized in the model.

#### TERRESTRIAL PATHWAY

The San Joaquin kit fox population near KR is currently under study since little is known of their numbers, feeding range and feeding habits. However, it is possible to estimate exposure based on existing information (although standard deviations associated with transfer and diet factors are large).

The simplified selenium transfer diagram for the kit fox is given in Figure 3-9. The transfer factors were derived from data in USBR (1986a) and are given in Table 3-5. Diet factors were estimated based on the relative abundance of herbivorous and carnivorous mammals which appear to constitute most of the diet of the kit fox. The fraction of the total diet obtained at KR was calculated by dividing the total estimated kit fox range (1,280 acres) into the upland area at KR (350 acres). The fraction obtained at KR is estimated to decline in the future as management practices reduce kit fox feeding habitat. Uptake of selenium from water drunk at KR is not included and is expected to be small given the low dissolved selenium levels expected and the small quantity of water consumed relative to prey.



# Chapter 4 TOXICOLOGY OF SELENIUM

# INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this analysis of selenium toxicity is to put into context the selenium exposure estimates generated in Chapter 5. Available data concerning selenium toxicity to key organisms at KR are reviewed to identify harmful levels of dietary selenium intake. This analysis is compared with the results of selenium exposure estimates for each cleanup alternative in Chapter 5.

# ENVIRONMENTAL SOURCES

Selenium in the environment, its occurrence, biogeochemistry, and toxicity have been reviewed extensively (Rosenfeld and Beath 1964, Shamberger 1981-1983, Zingaro and Cooper 1974, Wilber 1980, NRC 1976, 1980, 1983, Adriano 1986, Eisler Selenium may become available to bioaquatic and terrestrial organisms from the weathering of rocks and soils (Rosenfeld and Beath 1984) and the activities of man (USEPA 1980). Selenium in the environment may occur in numerous chemical forms due to the processes of oxidation and reduction and biologically mediated transformations. However, the various forms of selenium are not distinguished in this risk assessment because the toxicity evaluation includes all This approach is conservative relative forms of selenium. to selenium toxicity because most data collected at KR describe total selenium concentrations. The risk characterization also uses total selenium concentrations.

# BIRDS

## SELENIUM TOXICITY

Excessive selenium has produced toxicity symptoms in numerous animal and human populations. The range of health problems observed in birds is discussed in the following section. Extensive reviews of selenium toxicity in other animals are found in Rosenfeld and Beath (1964), NRC (1976, 1980), Wilber (1980), USEPA (1980); and human effects are discussed by Shapiro (1973), and National Academy of Sciences (1977).

A summary of pertinent literature references showing a relationship between selenium in avian diet and effects is presented in Table 4-1. A discussion of these findings is presented in the following sections.

SAT74/40 4-1



Reference	Heinz, et al. in press Arnold et al. 1972, 1973 Heinz et al., in press Heinz et al., in press	Heinz et al., in press Heinz et al., in press Heinz et al., in press Heinz et al., in press	El-Begearmi et al., 1977	Poley and Moxon, 1937	Heinz et al., in press		Ort and Latshaw, 1978 Arnold et al. Ort and Latshaw, 1978	Mosknes, 1983	Jensen, 1975 Ort and Latshaw, 1978	El-Begearmi et al., 1977
Test Organism	Mallard Chicken Mallard Mallard Mallard Mallard Mallard	Mallard Mallard Mallard Mallard	Japanese quail	Chicken	Mallard		Chicken Chicken Chicken	Chicken	Chicken Chicken	Japanese quail
Response	Mortality of adults; weight loss Reduced chick survival Mortality of adults Depressed body weight - adult Reduced egg laying Reduced duckling survival Lower Radeliffe index Depressed body weight - duckling	Reduced duckling survivial Low hatching success 18% abnormal embryos Multiple malformations Depressed body weight	Lower hatchability	Low hatching success	Multiple malformations		Lowered hatching success Lowered egg production Reduced egg weight	No effect on adult or egg production	Reduced growth Impaired hatching success	Lowered chick survival
Chemical Form	Sodium selenite Sodium selenite Sodium selenite	Selenomethionine	Sodium selenite	Selenomethionine	Sodium selenite		Selenium selenite Selenium selenite Selenium selenite	Selenomethionine	Sodium selenite Sodium selenite	Sodium selenite
Dose (ppm)	100 40 25	10	12	10	10	10	7 78 7	9	ro ro	ω

4-2



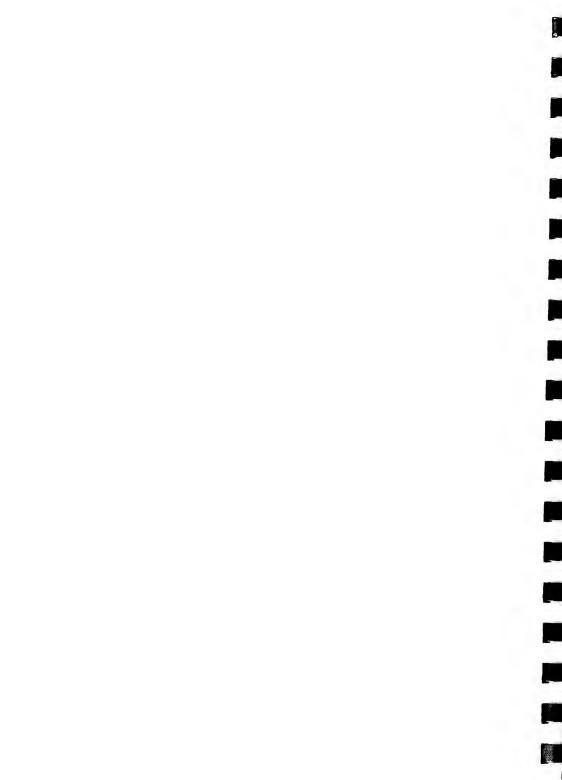
Selenium toxicity has been shown to occur in poultry, quail, and mallards from extensive studies dating back to the 1930's. These studies have shown toxic response to dietary ingestion of selenium compounds in an array of manifestations such as reduced growth; reproductive impairment; embryogenic, hatchling, and adult mortality; deformities; and teratogenic effects.

The early studies of chickens receiving selenium in the diet from cereal grains grown in seleniferous soils showed both reduced growth and reproductive impairment to complete failure of hatching (Moxon 1937, Poley et al. 1937, Poley and Moxon 1938, Moxon and Rhian 1943). The selenium content of the grain has been speculated to have contained as much as 10 mg/kg selenium in the form of selenomethionine (Heinz, et al. in press). The chicks produced in some studies (Franke and Tulley 1936) showed severe deformities and high mortality. Recent studies (Ohlendorf, et al. 1986, Ohlendorf et al. in press and Saiki 1986) have correlated diet selenium and low hatchability embryonic deformity and high mortality in wild birds at KR.

The mechanism of selenium toxicity is not well understood (Ohlendorf, et al. 1986). However, researchers have demonstrated various aspects of manifestations of avian selenium toxicity.

# Avian Toxicity

Reproductive failure, reduced fecundity, and mortality of adults have been demonstrated using a selenium diet. study by Heinz, et al. (in press) showed no effect on reproductive success, growth, or survival in mallards with dietary selenium concentrations up to 10 mg/kg. Higher doses of selenium show toxicity. Eleven of 12 adults died on a 100 mg/kg diet and one drake died in the 25 mg/kg diet group. Females on the 25 mg/kg diet showed egg production, fertility, and hatching success diminished significantly when compared to ducks fed with up to 10 mg/kg selenium. Survival of ducklings and 21-day-old body weights were reduced for the ducks receiving 25 mg/kg selenium selenite or 10 mg/kg selenomethionine. Ten and 25 mg/kg inorganic selenium and 10 mg/kg selenomethionine showed teratogenic effects. Eggs containing 22.2 percent abnormal embryos were produced by mallards receiving 25 mg/kg sodium selenite in the diet. Similarly, mallards fed the 10 mg/kg organic selenium compound showed 18.3 percent abnormal embryos with many individuals having multiple malformations such as missing or reduced bills, toes, eyes, and twisted legs.



The Heinz study concluded that selenomethionine was more toxic to mallards than was selenite. Selenomethionine is reported as the major form of selenium in plants; thus, it may pose the greatest threat to herbivorous waterfowl (and carnivorous/omnivorous waterfowl utilizing herbivorous invertebrates/vertebrates for major food items).

# Embryonic Effects

Selenium compounds introduced into chick embryos produced a range of deformities due to necrosis of brain and spinal cord tissues, the optic cups and vesicles, and in limb tissues (Gruenwald 1985). Embryonic malformations such as twisted necks and legs, missing appendages, absent or deformed beaks, protruding eyes, and edema were observed when 15 mg/kg selenium were introduced to the diet of chickens (Poley, et al. 1937, Franke, et al. 1936, Franke and Tulley 1936). Chickens fed 7 to 9 mg/kg selenium or sodium selenite produced embryos with edema of the head and neck (Ort and Latshaw 1978, Arnold, et al. 1973). Mallards fed 10 mg/kg selenium as selenomethionine or sodium selenite produced abnormal embryos (Heinz, et al. in prep.). The abnormalities noted in the embryos included stunted growth, swollen necks, hydrocephaly, and malformations such as reduced or absent lower bill, spoon-shaped bill, missing toes, twisted legs, and small or missing eyes. Control group abnormalities were limited to minor bill defects, stunting, and swollen necks.

Shell quality as measured by the Radcliffe Index was poorer and duckling weight at birth was lower from eggs produced by mallard hens fed 25 mg/kg selenium (Heinz, et al. in press).

## Hatching Success

Hatching success of fertile eggs has been considered the most sensitive measure of reproductive effect of selenium (Heinz, et al. in press). Ort and Latshaw (1978) identified 5 mg/kg selenium (sodium selenite) as "borderline toxic" in chickens due to depression of hatching rates. Other studies of chickens (Ort and Latshaw 1978, Arnold, et al. 1972, 1973) and Japanese quail (El-Begearmi, et al. 1977) showed reduced hatchability success when 7 to 9 mg/kg and 6 to 12 mg/kg selenium doses respectively were fed in the diet. Mallards fed up to 25 mg/kg selenium (sodium selenite) showed no statistically significant decrease in hatchability, although some decline was noted at 25 mg/kg (Heinz, et al. in press).

#### FINDINGS

The limited information demonstrating selenium toxicity in avian species shows that selenium concentrations of 5 mg/kg



dry weight in the diet may have chronic toxic effects on chickens. The results of Heinz's study with mallards showed that a 10 mg/kg concentration of selenomethionine results in reproductive impairment or embryonic deformities.

There is a lack of wild bird studies using test species birds similar in ecological needs to the receptors at KR. Avian species at KR may have feeding habits, metabolic activities, reproductive cycles, and other important factors that would cause them to adversely respond to either higher or lower levels of selenium in the diet than observed in the few studies conducted to date with quail, ducks, and chickens.

Other complicating factors are related to the selenium transformations in the environment and food chain. For example, different bird species will be exposed to various ratios of inorganic and organic selenium (and subsequent toxic effects) depending upon diet preferences and prey food availability. There are no data available to estimate the effect of this unknown.

Based on existing information, the range of harmful effect diet selenium concentration is estimated to be 5 to 10 mg/kg. The "safe level" cleanup goal at KR is 3 mg/kg. The USFWS is currently evaluating a dosage of 4 mg/kg in an attempt to define more precisely the relationship between selenium concentrations in wildlife food and wildlife health. USFWS scientists hypothesize that adverse wildlife effects might occur at dosages as low as 5 or 4 mg/kg, but they have measured "background" levels of up to 3 mg/kg total selenium (dry weight) in invertebrates at the Volta Wildlife Area where no biological effects have been observed. On this basis, the USFWS recommends 3 mg/kg for wildlife food pending conclusion of their field and laboratory research.

#### MAMMALS

Dose response relations showing toxicity from diet sources have not been reported for wild mammal species. Limited studies conducted using dogs and laboratory rats have shown a range of responses. A dosage in the range of 8 to 30 mg/kg dry weight in the diet may result in indications of chronic toxicity in mammals (Wilber 1980). Rats and dogs exposed to dietary levels of 5 to 10 mg/kg dry weight selenium could be expected to show evidence of chronic toxicity (Anspaugh and Robinson 1971). Indications of chronic toxicity such as liver changes and heart, kidney, and spleen effects resulted from dietary selenium levels of 1.4 to 3.0 mg/kg dry weight.

In the study of post wearling rats fed 1.6 to 11.2 mg/kg selenium, Halvorson et al. (1966) observed no significant

effect on growth by selenium concentrations of 1.6 to 4.8 mg/kg. A diet of 6.4 mg/kg dry weight of sodium selenite or of seleniferous wheat caused significant growth depression, and death occurred in the post-weanling rats after the fourth week of the experiment at levels of 8.0 to 11.2 mg/kg. Spleen and pancreas enlargement were observed on the 6.4 and 8-mg/kg diet, while liver weight was reduced when 9.6 or 11.2 mg/kg selenium were fed. Earlier studies have shown a toxic response in rats fed 5 mg/kg in the diet (Moxon 1937, Franke and Painter 1938).

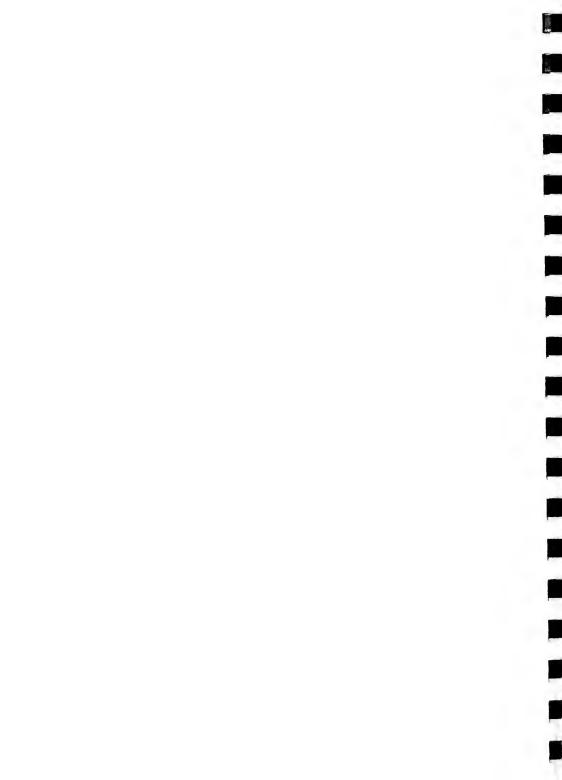
As with birds, there is a lack of toxicological information on species similar to receptors at KR. Based on existing information for other mammals, the range of harmful effect diet selenium concentration is estimated to be 2 to 5 mg/kg.

#### FISH

There are very little data on which to base a direct estimate of a no adverse effect level of dietary selenium on fish (Hodson and Hilton 1983). Fish, however, are sensitive to direct exposure to selenium in water.

In the development of ambient water quality criteria for selenium, EPA (1980) summarized a database of 23 studies of eight freshwater fish species. The acute toxicity (96-hour LC50) values ranged from 620 to 28,500  $\mu g/l$  for the bluegill. Lower 96-hour LC50 concentrations of 2,100 and 5,200  $\mu g/l$  were determined for fathead minnow fry and juveniles, respectively. During acute testing it was noted that some species become more sensitive with increased length of exposure beyond 96 hours. EPA determined a freshwater final acute value of 263  $\mu g/l$ . The criterion to protect freshwater aquatic life was set at 35  $\mu g/l$  as a 24-hour average. This concentration is above expected water selenium levels at KR in the future.

Bioaccummulation of selenium in the food chain has been implicated as the cause of reduced fish populations (Lemly 1985a, 1985b, Finley 1985, Hilton, et al. 1980). An example from the effect of bioaccumulation was demonstrated at Belews Lake by Finley (1985) where mayfly nymphs (Hexagenia limbata) fed to bluegills caused pathological and behavioral changes. Fish at Belews Lake are surviving on a diet containing 5 to 18 mg/kg selenium (wet weight). Studies using rainbow trout (Salmo gairelneri) have shown some adverse response to diets containing as little as 3 mg/kg selenium dry weight (Hilton, et al. 1980). Based on this very limited information, the range of harmful effect diet selenium concentration for fish is estimated to be 3 to 5 mg/kg.



# Chapter 5 RISK CHARACTERIZATION

## INTRODUCTION

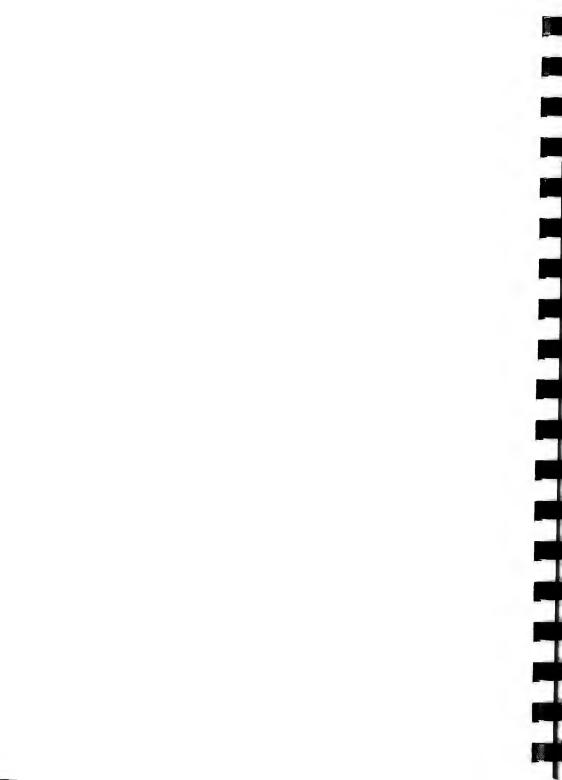
Estimation of the risks to fish and wildlife associated with KR cleanup alternatives is uncertain because of the lack of complete knowledge of the KR ecosystem food chains, uncertainty about the diet of key species, and uncertainty about the transfer factors which describe the biomagnification of selenium between food chain components along exposure pathways. Estimates of uncertainty for diet factors and transfer factors for the key species were presented in Chapter 3.

The uncertainty associated with each diet and transfer factor is compounded with other uncertainties in the estimation of exposure level and increases the variability in a final estimate of exposure. The risk characterization provides estimates of this total variability through the use of a Monte Carlo simulation model.

#### KESTERSON MONTE CARLO MODEL

A Monte Carlo model is constructed by first building a conceptual model of the system. For KR, the model consists of a simplified selenium transfer model developed for each of the key species. These models are described in Chapter 3. The model simulates the selenium concentration in each compartment along an exposure pathway by multiplying the selenium concentration in the previous compartment by the appropriate transfer factor. Key species diet selenium concentration is calculated by weighting each component of the diet by the appropriate diet factor. Boundary or initial conditions for the model are those selenium concentrations in KR sediments or surface water after implementation of a clean-up alternative.

Each estimated transfer factor and diet factor has an associated standard distribution, either uniform or lognormal. The lognormal distribution is used to represent uncertainty in the transfer and diet factors because it is a common distribution of selenium concentration data observed in nature. In addition, the lognormal distribution has several statistically desirable properties, such as estimating only positive values. It is a skewed distribution that produces rare large values more often than does the normal distribution. The best estimate of the transfer and diet factors is taken as the mean of the distribution and the uncertainty is expressed as a standard deviation or range.



The model is run several hundred times with each iteration using new values for transfer and diet factors drawn randomly from the assumed distribution for each factor. The results of each simulation are tabulated and used to create an empirical frequency distribution of predicted selenium concentrations in the diet of each key species.

Simulations were run for each cleanup alternative for each key species. The model was also run under past conditions with the application of drainwater to KR.

#### DISCUSSION

# MODEL RESULTS

Figures 5-1 through 5-3 summarize results for each of the cleanup alternatives. The figures show the range of predictions of selenium concentration in the diet of key species. Figures 5-4 through 5-10 show the results using historic conditions with application of drainwater. For any combination of cleanup alternative and key species, the 50-percent probability level represents predicted diet selenium concentration resulting from the mean transfer and diet factors for that particular condition. The uncertainty of the exposure estimate is shown by the probability distribution about the mean.

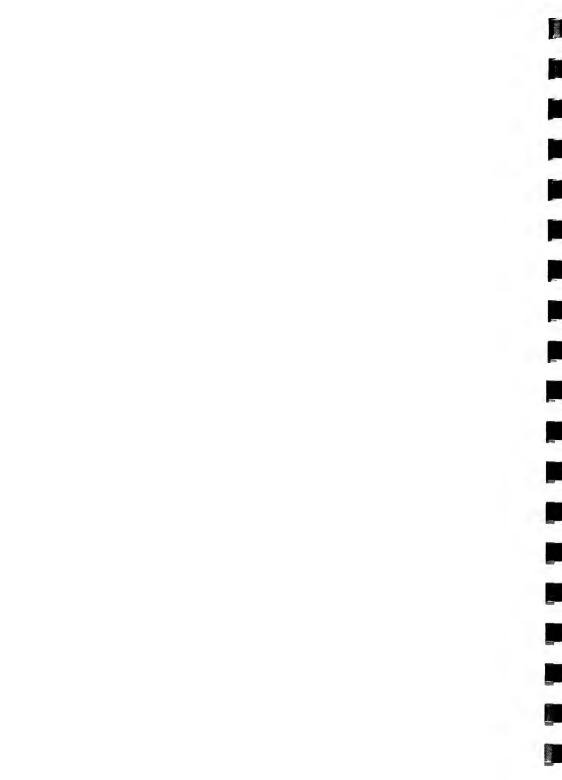
As an example, consider the results of predictions of mallard exposure under the FRP. The 50-percent probability level represents a diet selenium concentration of about 5 mg/kg (from Figure 5-1). Therefore, 50 percent of the predictions of diet selenium concentration are less than 5 mg/kg, or based on the selenium transfer model and on the uncertainty of transfer and diet factors, the FRP has about a 50-percent chance of resulting in a mallard diet selenium concentration of less than 5 mg/kg.

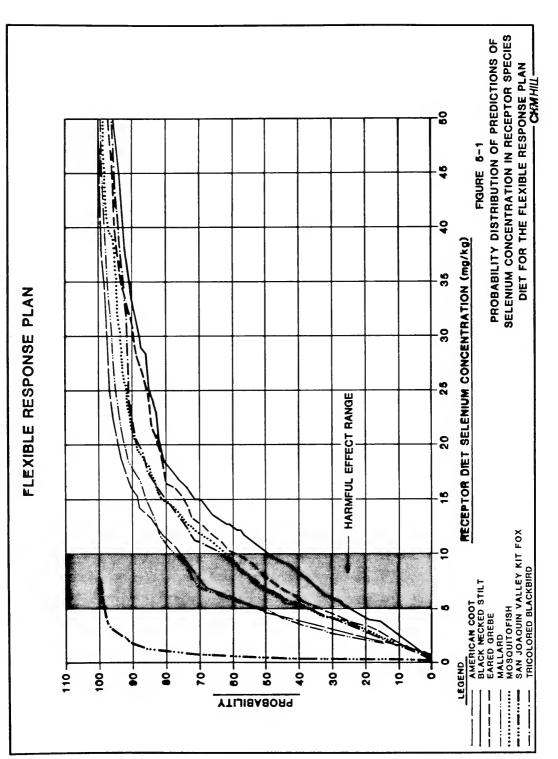
#### MODEL LIMITATIONS

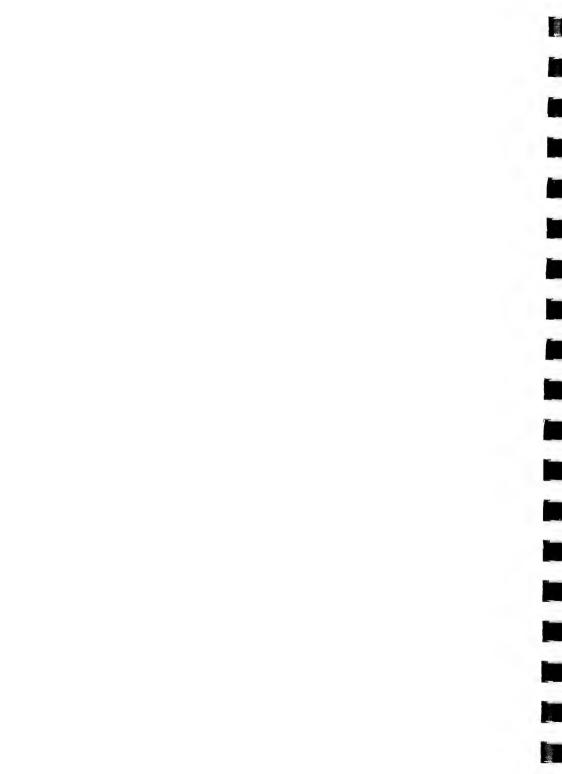
# Temporal Context

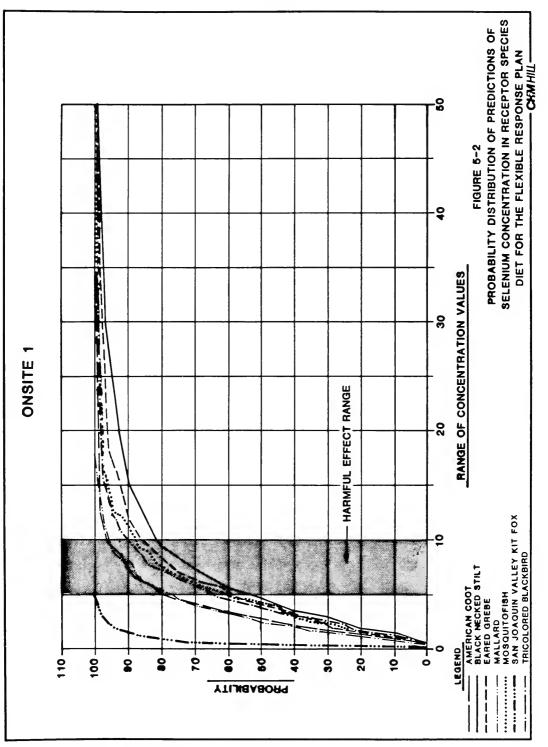
The exposure estimates for each alternative are based on basic assumptions regarding the steady state relationship between selenium concentration in sediments and the resulting concentration in surface water. Although this relationship is based on existing knowledge of selenium chemistry and field and laboratory experiments, insufficient data have been collected to determine the length of time that will elapse until steady state conditions are achieved. The model results do not take into account the length of time necessary to achieve steady state conditions.

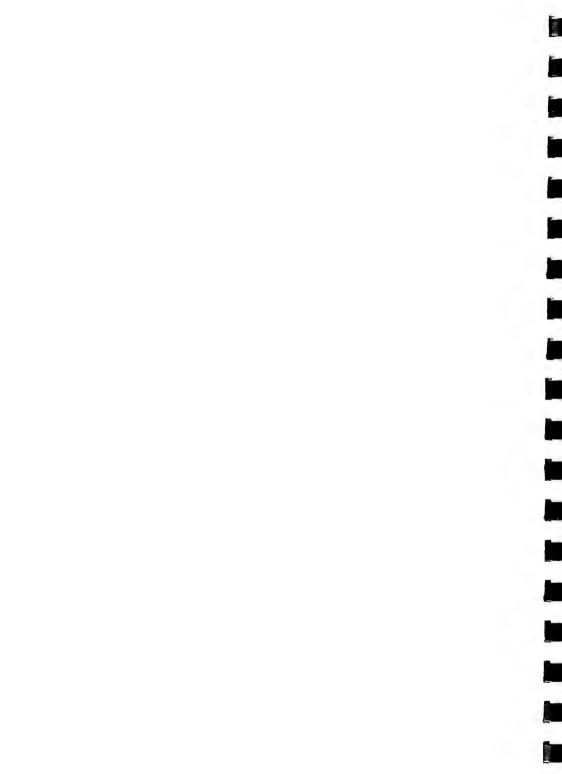
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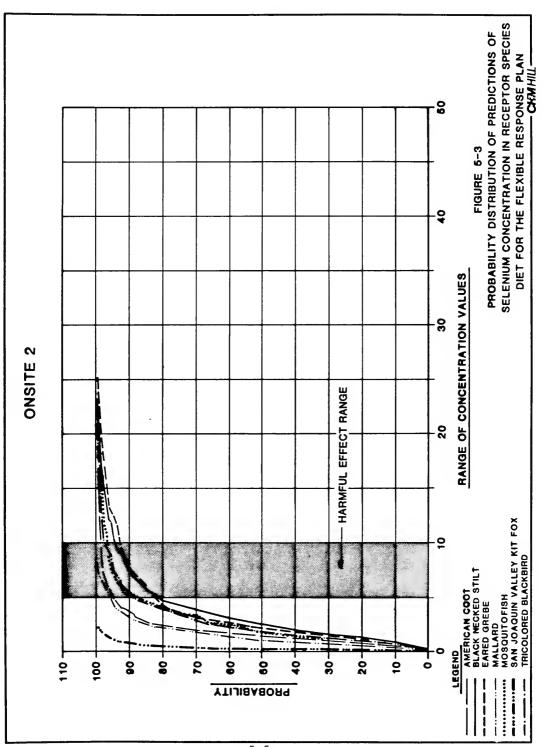


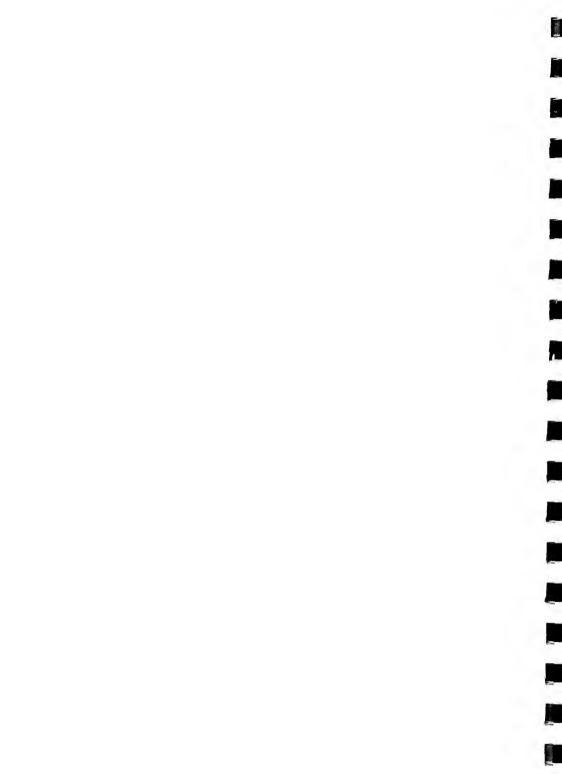


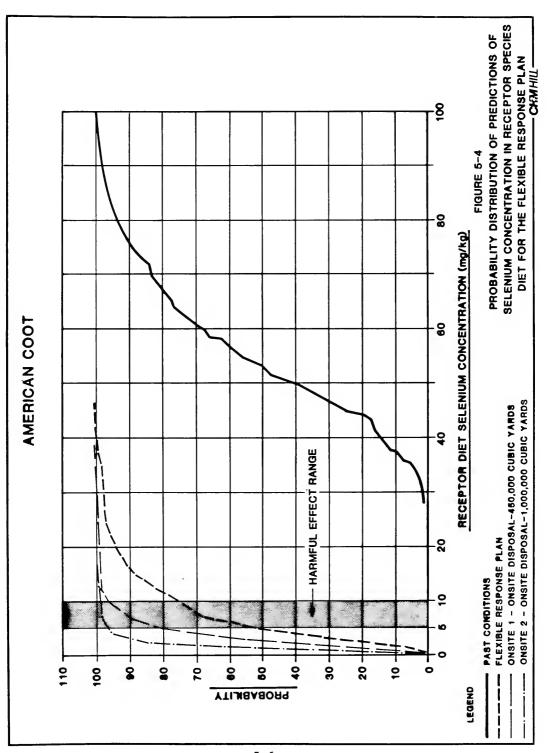


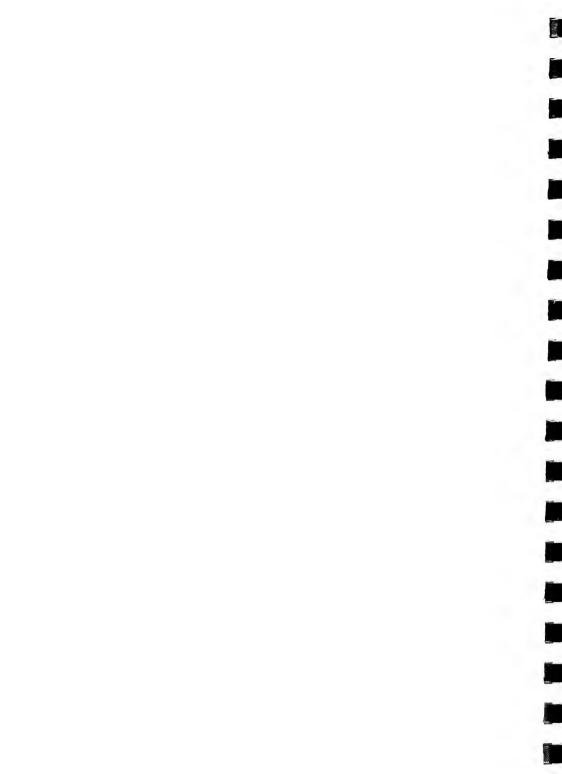


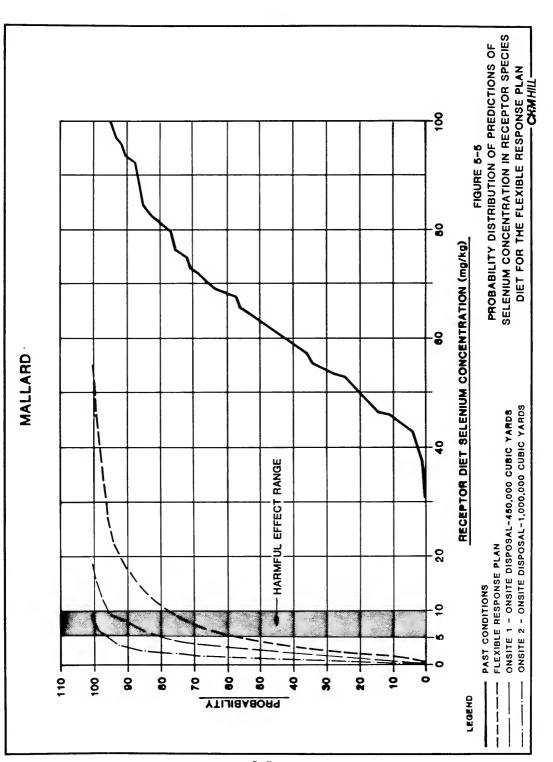


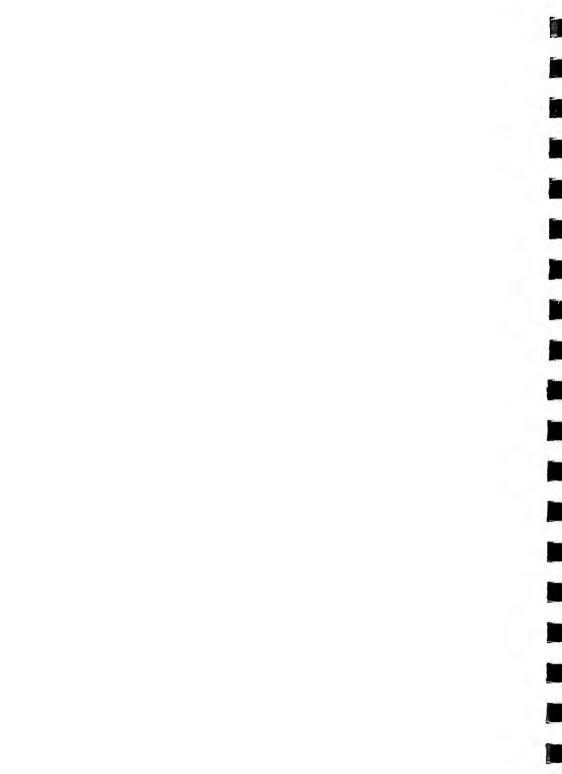


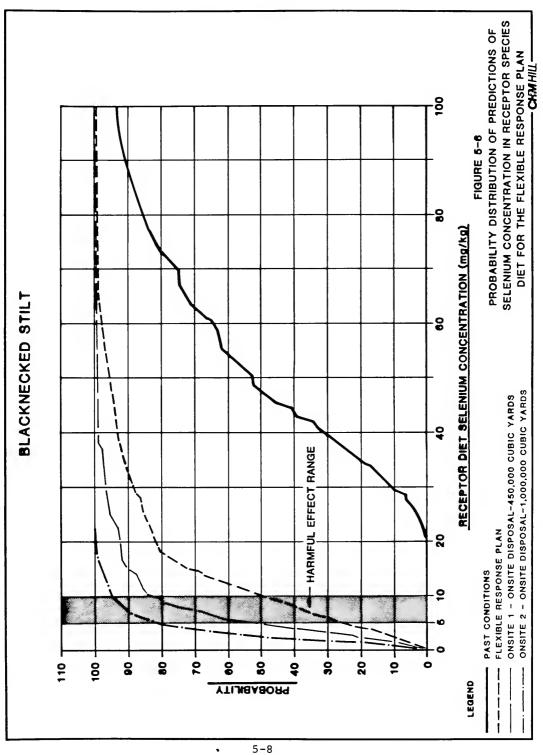


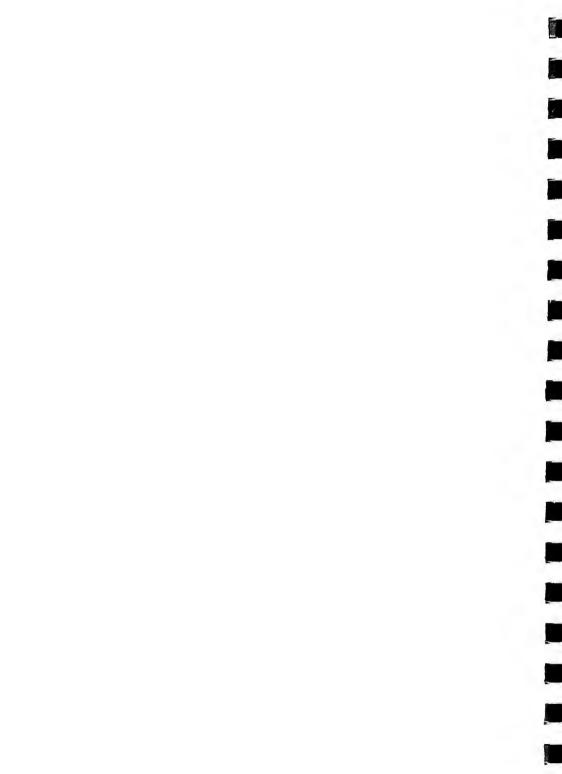


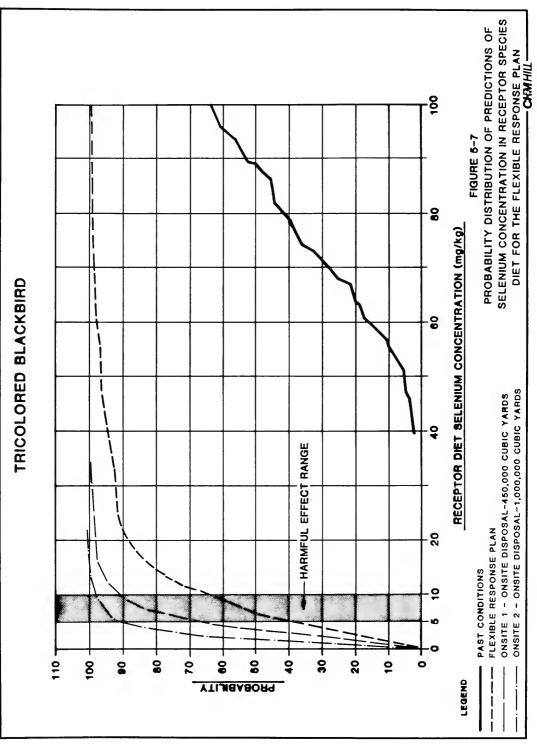


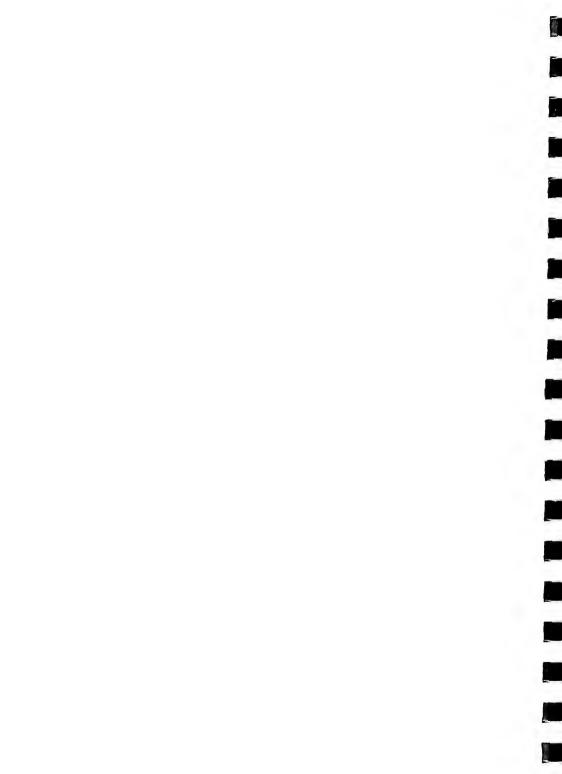


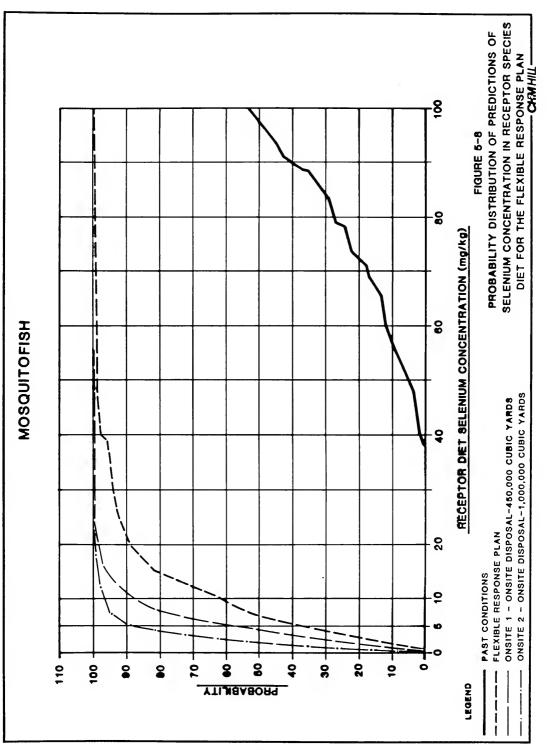


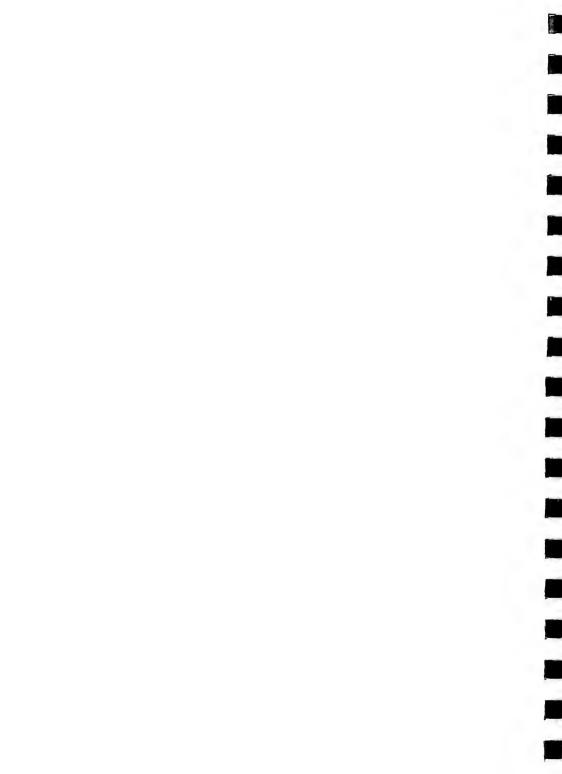


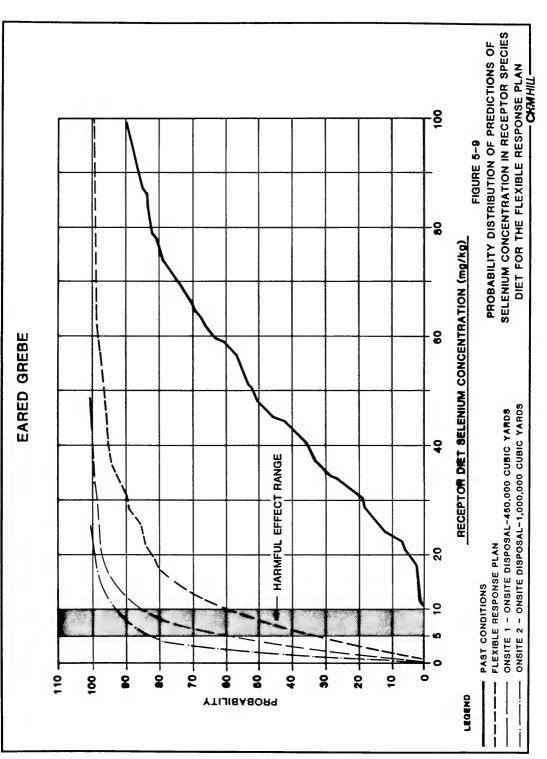


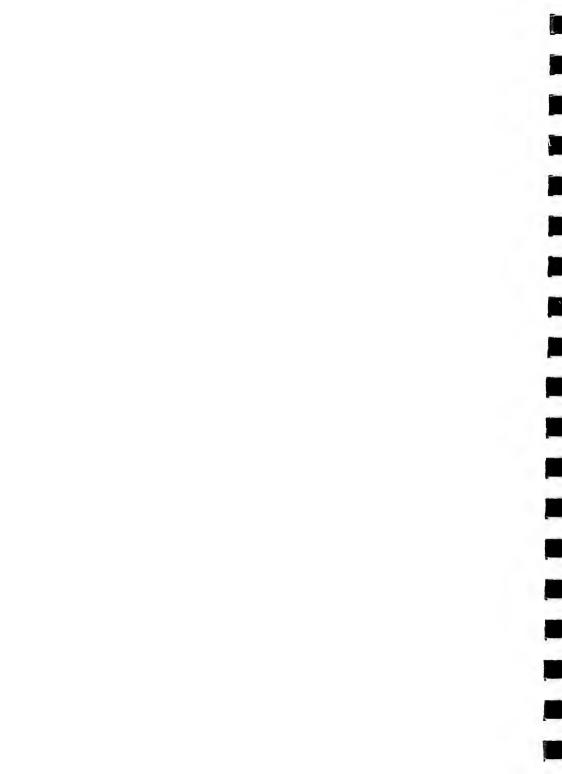


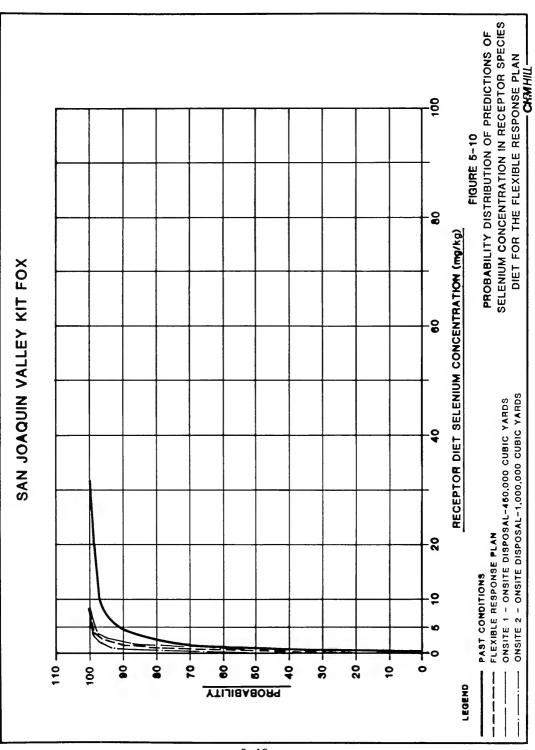


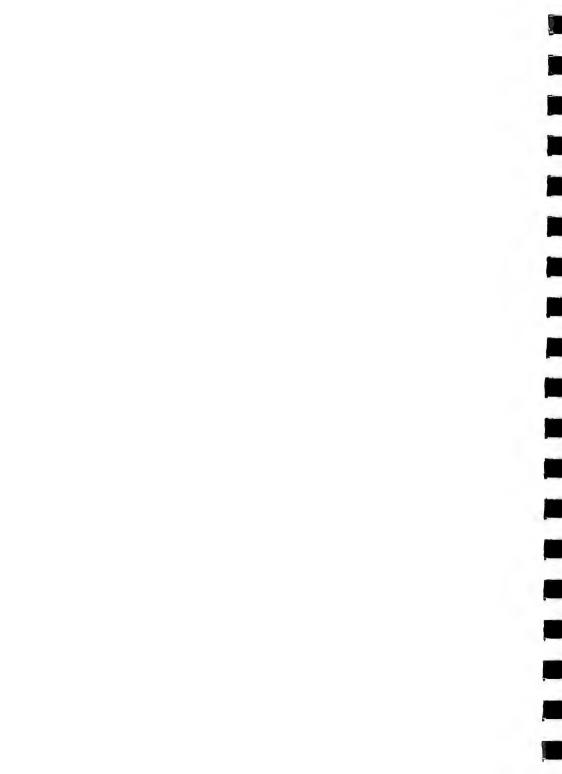












#### Accuracy of Predictions

The model does not describe uptake and loss rates of selenium by the components of the exposure pathways; rather, the model uses transfer and diet factors observed in the laboratory and the field. The uncertainty estimates of these factors are based on these observations, but they do not necessarily simulate exact conditions at KR.

Because insufficient information exists to develop quantitative dose-response relationship for diet selenium exposure for the key species at KR, the model results cannot be used to make quantitative estimates of the impact of cleanup alternatives on the exposed population. The toxicity profiles, however, can be used along with model results to determine the uncertainty of the relative safety of cleanup alternatives.

### Applicability to Other Organisms

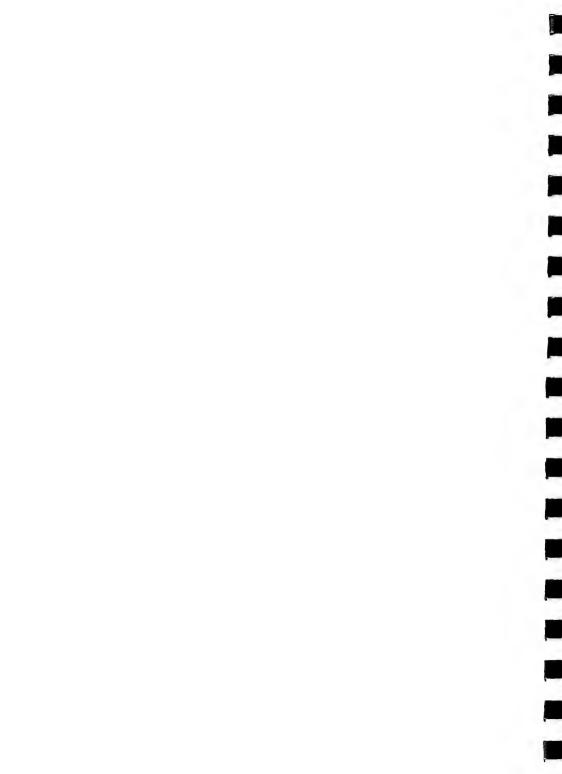
Seven species that are representative of common and important trophic levels at KR were selected for selenium exposure evaluation. The impact of each cleanup alternative on each species can be considered in terms of the fraction of the total population that resides at KR. This is also true for other species that were not directly considered in the analysis since the trophic levels of the seven species are representative of those of a large number of species at KR. In other words, the transfer and diet factors (and associated uncertainties) and, hence, the selenium exposure estimates have broad applicability and are not restricted to the seven species for which they were derived.

#### Habitat Changes

The model does not address the potential indirect effect of implementation of each alternative on wildlife populations that may result from changes in habitat. As discussed earlier, this is the primary reason why the Immobilization Plan is not addressed in this analysis. Each alternative will affect the habitat of KR to a variable and unquantified extent. For example, implementation of Onsite-2 will reduce tricolored blackbird nesting habitat. Furthermore, diet factors may change in the case of opportunistic organisms in response to changes in food availability brought about by implementation of a particular alternative.

#### IMPLICATION OF EXPOSURE PREDICTIONS

The toxicity profiles for selenium developed in Chapter 4 indicate the following diet (average total diet) selenium concentrations may result in harmful impacts:



Key Species Group	Harmful Diet Selenium Concentration (mg/kg)	Diet Cleanup Goals (mg/kg)
Birds Mammals	5-10 2-5	3
Fish	5-10	5

Harmful diet selenium concentrations are different than cleanup goals because the harmful levels represent concentrations that are expected to cause harm rather than the more conservative cleanup levels. Table 5-1 shows the percent of diet selenium predictions that are below harmful levels for each key species and for each cleanup alternative.

The risk characterization does not indicate that any of the plans will clearly fail. For avian species, the results for FRP indicate that 40 to 65 percent of the diet selenium predictions will be beneath harmful effect levels. It should be noted that the most recent results of LBL research at KR (LBL 1986) indicate that surface water selenium concentrations may be in the 2- to  $5-\mu g/l$  range under the FRP. The model results are based on a range of 2 to 15  $\mu g/l$ . The FRP may therefore have a greater chance of being effective than the modeling results indicate.

The Onsite Disposal Plan-1 shows a greater frequency of below harmful effect predictions than the FRP, 65 to 90 percent. The Onsite Disposal Plan-2 results in the highest frequency of below harmful effect predictions, 85 to 95 percent.

Although the Onsite Disposal Plans show 65 to 95 percent average probability of diet selenium concentrations below the harmful effect level, these plans will be less likely to achieve the more conservative diet cleanup goals. example, Figure 5-11 shows the relationship between the probability of selenium concentrations in American coot and black-necked stilt diets being less than 3 mg/kg versus residual selenium concentrations in KR soils after onsite disposal. These two species represent the range of predicted responses. The Onsite Disposal Plan-1 appears to have about a 30- to 50-percent chance of achieving receptor diet selenium levels less than 3 mg/kg. The Onsite Disposal Plan-2 has about a 55- to 85-percent chance. To achieve probabilities in the 90- to 100-percent range, soil residuals would have to be less than 0.5 mg/kg. To achieve these residual levels, excavation would have to extend to greater than 6 inches (i.e., excavating the entire site to up to 2 feet).

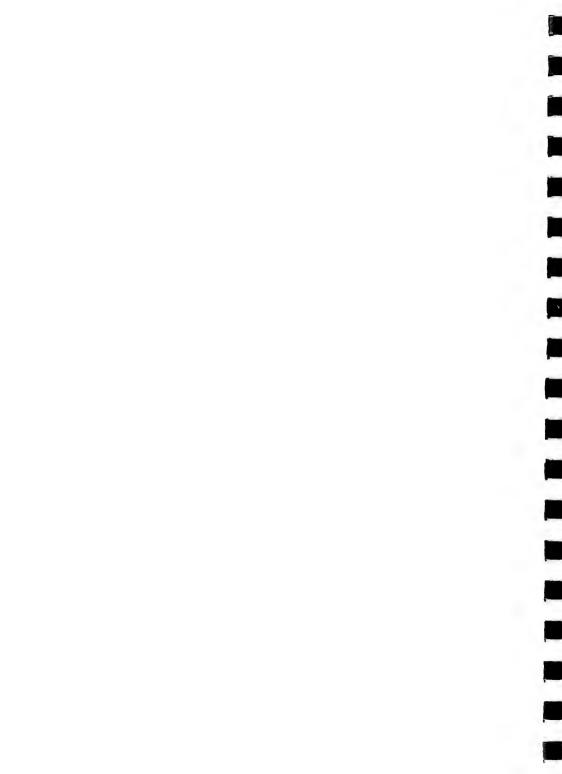


Table 5-1
PERCENT OF DIET SELENIUM PREDICTIONS THAT ARE BELOW ESTIMATED HARMFUL LEVELS
FOR EACH KEY SPECIES AND FOR EACH CLEANUP ALTERNATIVE

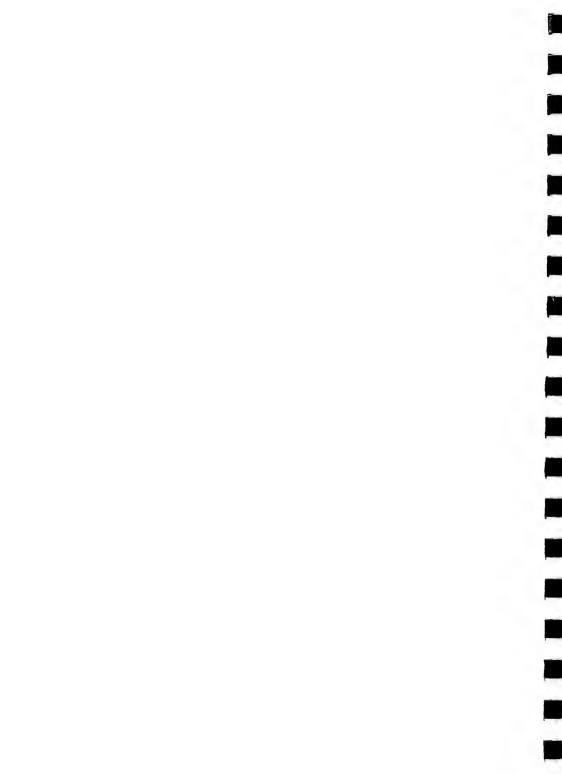
				Cleanu	p Alte	Cleanup Alternative			
Key Species		FRP		0	Onsite-1 <sup>C</sup>	J_C		Onsite-2 <sup>d</sup>	2 <sup>d</sup>
Birds - Harmful Effect Level <sup>a</sup>	м	5	10	ю	5	10	ю	Ŋ	10
Mallards	35	20	80	55	75	95	9.0	95	~100
Coots	30	20	75	55	80	95	85	92	$^{\sim}100$
Blacknecked Stilts	10	25	20	30	20	80	09	80	95
Tricolored Blackbirds	20	35	65	40	09	06	70	85	95
Eared Grebes	20	35	09	40	09	82	09	80	06
Mammals - Harmful Effect Level <sup>a</sup>		2	2		2	2		7	2
San Joaquin Valley Kit Fox		06	~100		95	~100		~100	~100
Fish - Harmful Effect Level <sup>a,b</sup>		ю	2		е	Ŋ		Э	5
Mosquitofish		20	35		35	20		7.0	90

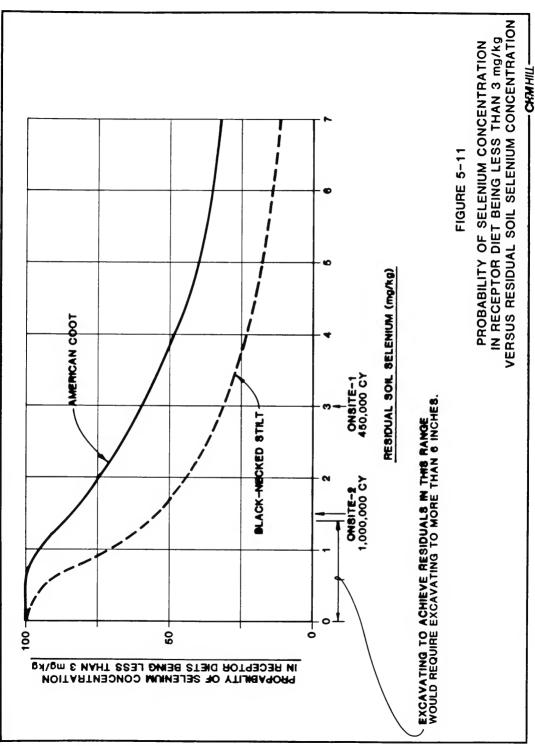
 $^{\bar{a}}_{\rm Diet}$  selenium concentration (mg/kg).

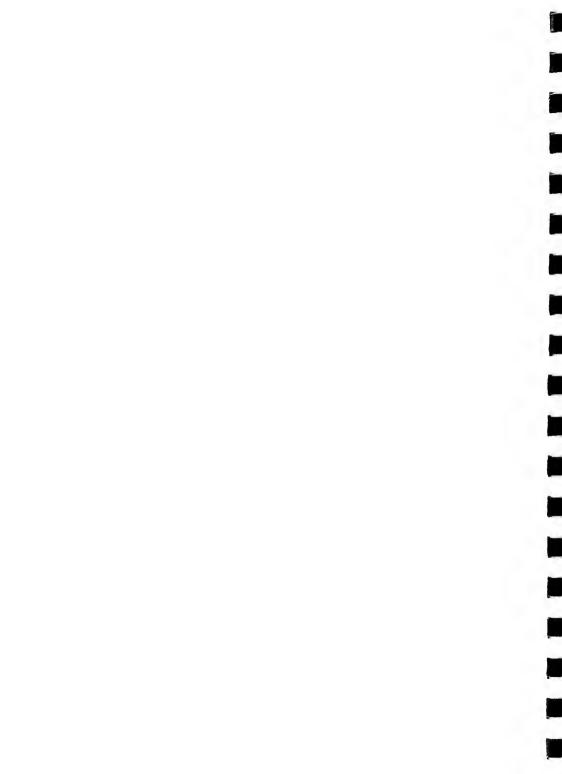
 $^{\mathrm{b}}\mathrm{Mosquitofish}$  not harmed by these selenium levels although other species may be.

c450,000 cubic yards.

d1,000,000 cubic yards.





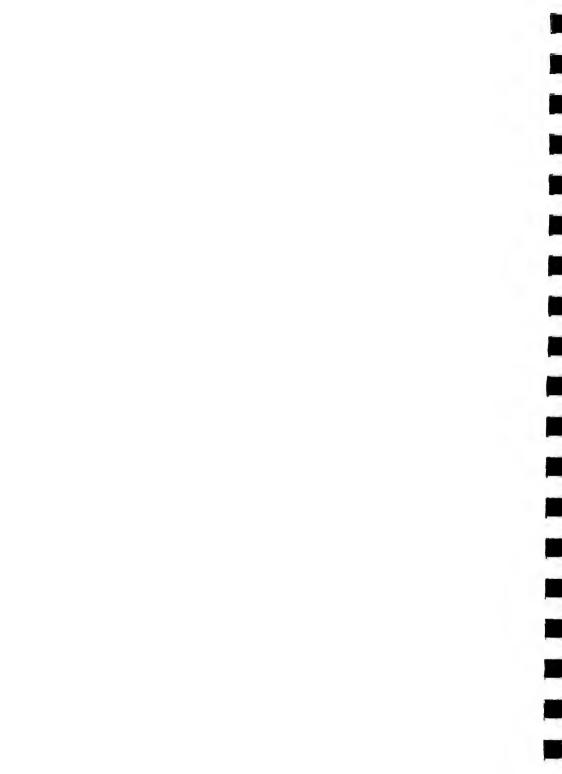


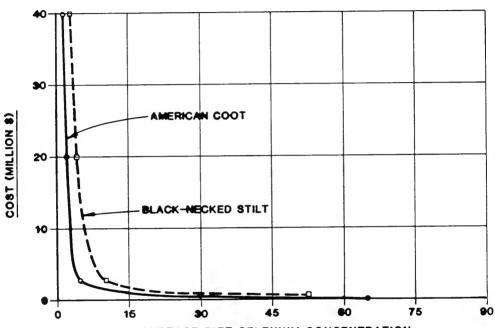
## COST VERSUS RISKS

To aid in decisionmaking, costs of cleanup alternatives can be compared to probability of harmful effect occurring. As described in Chapter 4, it is not possible to predict the number of individuals of various species "saved" versus cost under the various cleanup alternatives because quantitative dose response information is not available for the receptor species. Costs can be compared, however, to observations of the total number of birds "lost" in the past (see Table 3-1). Costs can also be compared to predictions of diet selenium concentrations.

Figure 5-12 shows the relationship between diet selenium concentrations for American coots and blacknecked stilts and costs for the three cleanup alternatives and past conditions at KR. This figure shows that termination of drainwater flow into KR and implementation of the FRP will reduce diet selenium concentrations by about 90 percent. However, the FRP still presents risks to wildlife because it may not achieve avian diet cleanup goals.

Figure 5-13 compares the costs of alternative cleanup plans versus "effectiveness" as measured by residual soil selenium concentrations and by predicted average concentrations of selenium in avian diets. As shown by this figure, the FRP is predicted to achieve soil selenium concentrations of 7 mg/kg; 50 percent of the predictions indicate that the FRP can achieve average avian diet selenium concentrations of 8 mg/kg. First year costs of the FRP are \$2.5 million. Onsite Disposal Plan-1, for a first year expenditure of \$20 million (8 times that of the FRP), is predicted to achieve soil selenium concentrations of 3 mg/kg (a 57-percent reduction compared to the FRP); 50 percent of the predictions indicate this plan can achieve average avian diet selenium concentrations of 4 mg/kg (a 50-percent reduction compared to the FRP). The Onsite Disposal Plan-2, for a first year capital expenditure of \$40 million (16 times that of the FRP), is predicted to achieve soil selenium concentrations of 1.5 mg/kg (a 79-percent reduction compared to the FRP); 51 percent of the predictions indicate this plan can achieve average avian diet selenium concentrations of 2.5 mg/kg (a 69-percent reduction compared to the FRP).





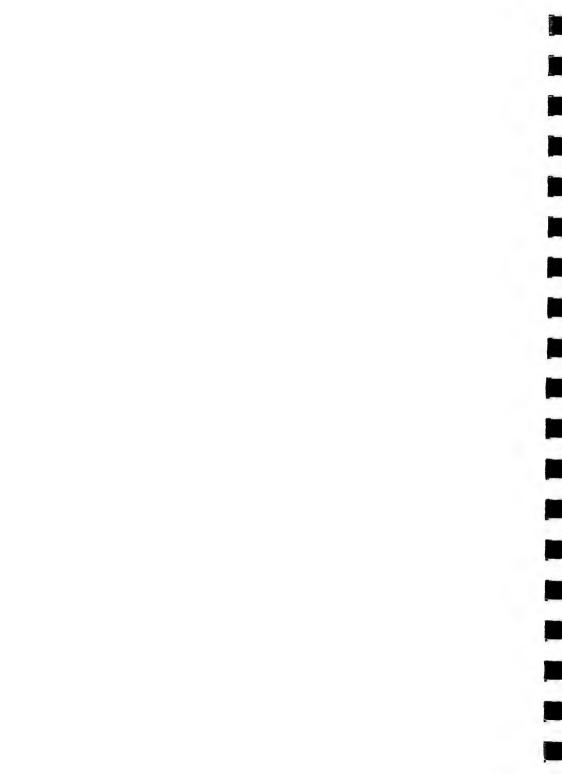
AVERAGE DHET SELENIUM CONCENTRATION FOR AMERICAN COOT & BLACK-NECKED STILT (mg/kg)

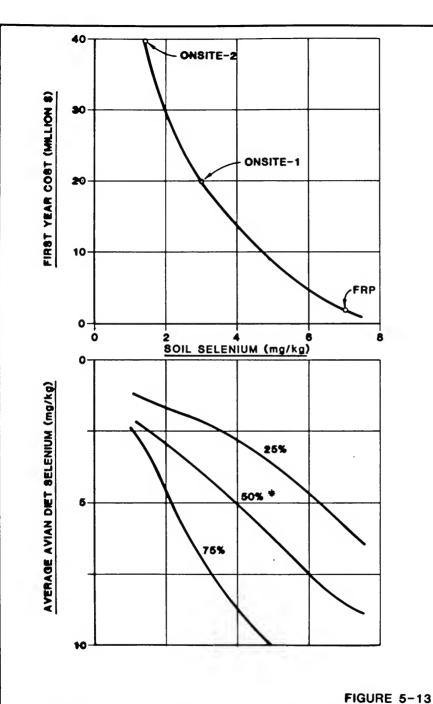
# COSTS (DOLLARS)

FRP: 2.5 MILLION
ONSITE-1: 20 MILLION
ONSITE-2: 30 MILLION

FIGURE 5-12
COST VERSUS DIET SELENIUM CONCENTRATION
FOR ALTERNATIVE CLEANUP PLANS

-CHMHILL-

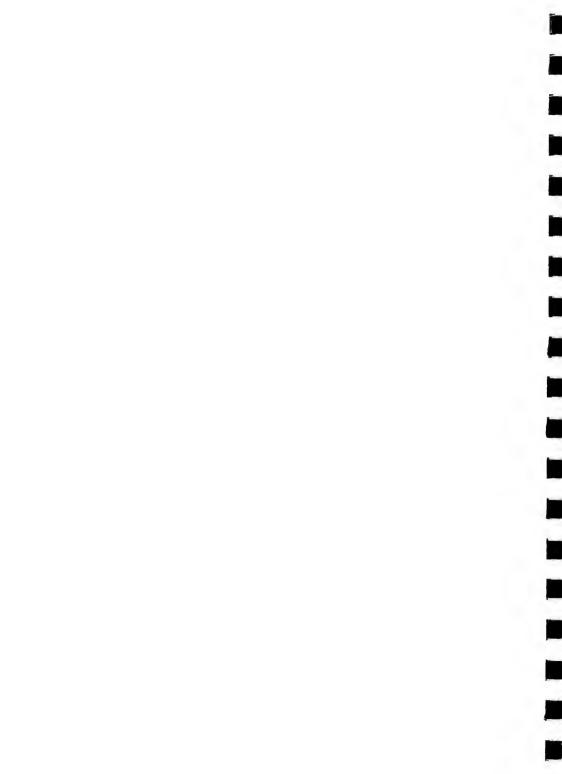




COSTS OF ALTERNATIVE CLEANUP PLANS VERSUS SOIL & DIET SELENIUM

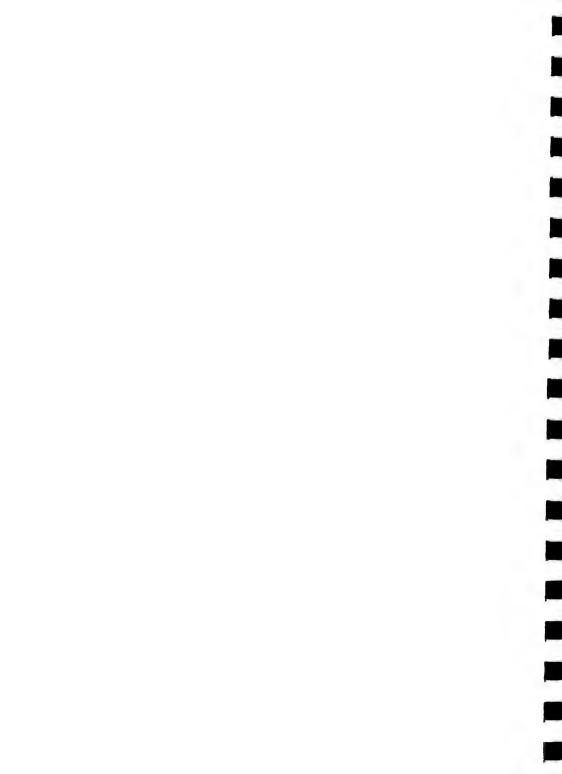
- CHM HILL-

Percentages refer to chance of average avian diet being less than Y-axis value.



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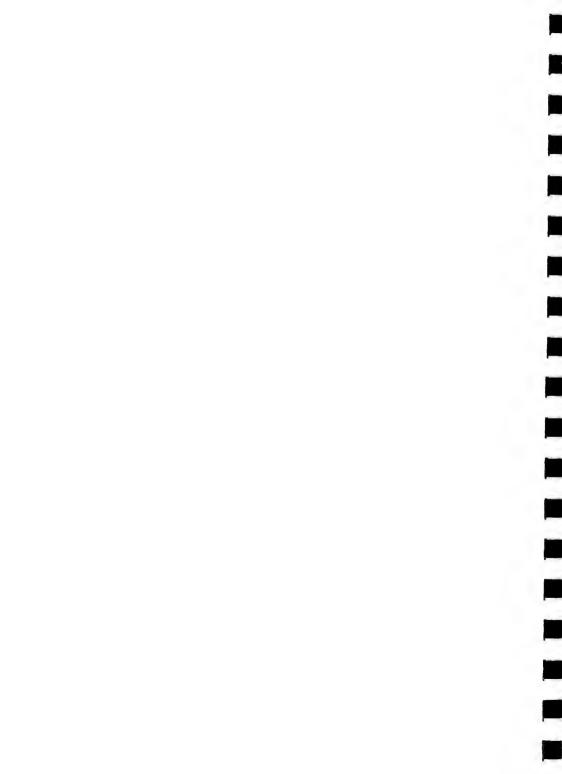
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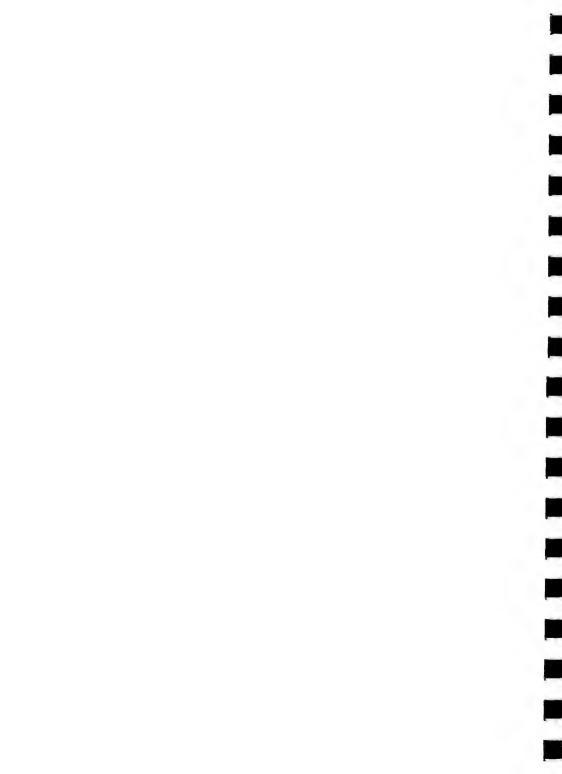
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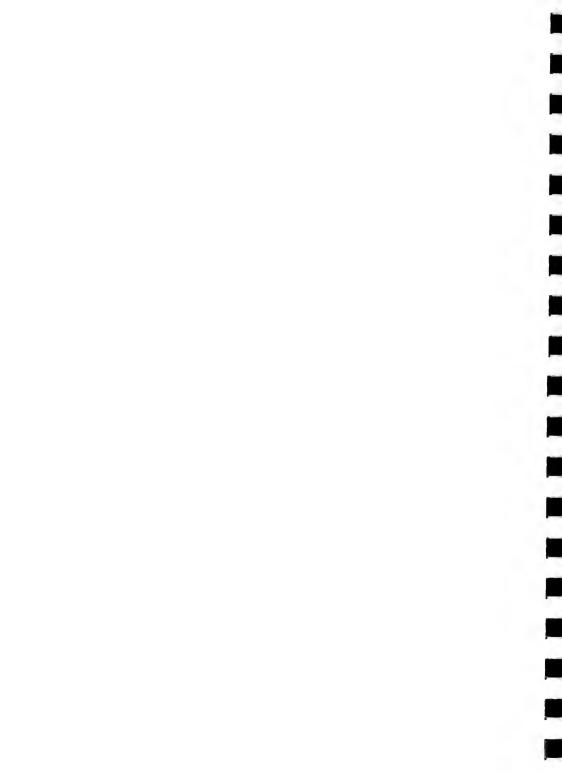
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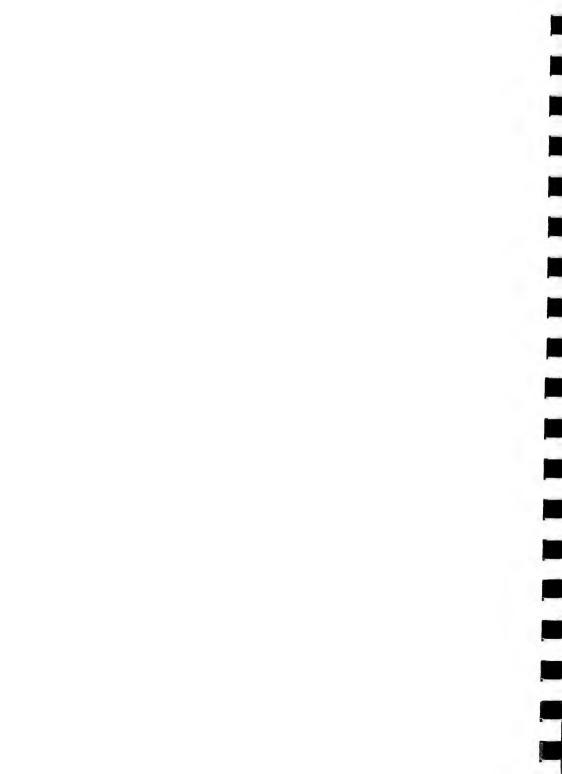
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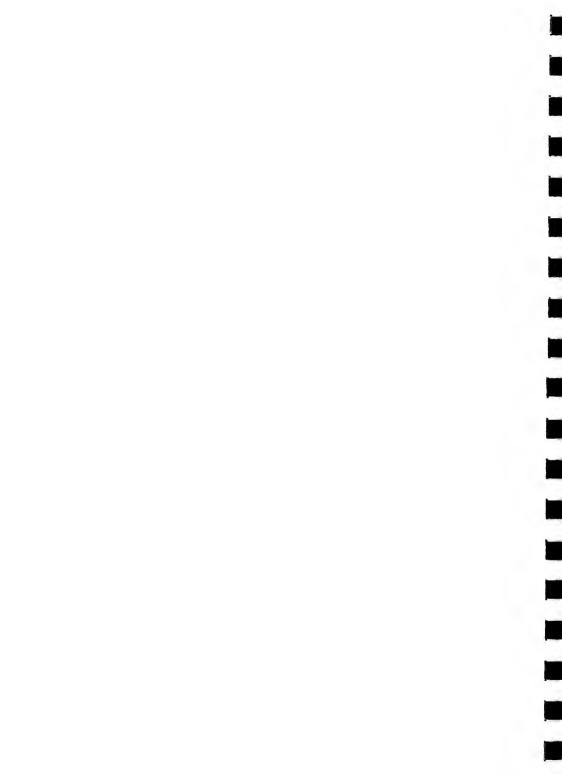
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## Appendix A Kesterson Reservoir Wildlife Species List

Common Name

Scientific Name

### Mammals

Virginia opossum Ornate shrew Marsh shrew Broad-footed mole Bat species

Desert cottontail Black-tailed hare California ground squirrel Botta's pocket gopher San Joaquin pocket mouse Heermann's kangaroo rat Fresno kangaroo rat Short-nosed kangaroo rat Western harvest mouse Deer mouse Muskrat California vole House mouse Coyote San Joaquin kit fox Raccoon Long-tailed weasel Mink Badger

# Birds

Pied-billed grebe
Horned grebe
Eared grebe
Western grebe
American white pelican
Double-crested cormorant
American bittern
Great blue heron
Great egret
Snowy egret
Cattle egret

Western spotted skunk

Striped skunk

Didelphis virginia Sorex ornatus S. bendirii Scapanus latimanus Myotis spp., Lasiurus spp. Eptesicus spp. Pipistrellus spp. Sylvilagus audubonii Lepus californicus Spermophilus beecheyi Thomomys bottae Perognathus inornatus inornatus Dipodomys heermanni D. nitratoides exilis D. n. brevinasus Reithrodontomys megalotis Peromyscus maniculatus Ondatra zibethicus Microtus californicus Mus musculus Canis latrans Vulpes macrotis mutica Procyon lotor Mustela frenata M. vison Taxidea taxus Spilogale gracilis

Podilymbus podiceps
Podiceps auritus
P. nigricollis
Aechmophorus occidentalis
Pelecanus erythrorhynchos
Phalacrocorax auritus
Botaurus lentiginosus
Ardea herodias
Casmerodius albus
Egretta thula
Bubulcus ibis

Mephitis mephitis

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Common Name

Scientific Name

#### Birds (continued)

Green-backed heron Black-crowned night-heron White-faced ibis Tundra swan

Greater white-fronted goose

Snow goose Ross' goose Canada goose

Green-winged teal

Mallard

Northern pintail Blue-winged teal Cinnamon teal Northern shoveler

Gadwall

Eurasian wigeon American wigeon Canvasback

Redhead Ring-necked duck

Greater scaup Lesser scaup Common goldeneye

Bufflehead Hooded merganser

Common merganser Ruddy duck Turkey vulture

Osprev

Black-shouldered kite

Bald eagle Northern harrier

Cooper's hawk Sharp-shinned hawk Swainson's hawk Red-tailed hawk Ferruginous hawk

Rough-legged hawk Golden eagle

American kestrel Prairie falcon

Ring-necked pheasant

Virginia rail Sora

301 a

Common moorhen

Butorides striatus
Nycticorax nycticorax

Plegadis chihi
Cygnus columbianus
Anser albifrons

Chen caerulescens

C. rossii

Branta canadensis

Anas crecca

A. platyrhynchos

A. acuta A. discors

A. cyanoptera

A. clypeata A. strepera

A. penelope A. americana

Aythya valisineria

A. americana collaris

A. marila A. affinis

Bucephala clangula

B. albeola

Lophodytes cucullatus

Mergus merganser
Oxyura jamaicensis
Cathartes aura
Pandion haliaetus
Elanus caeruleus

Haliaeetus leucocephalus

<u>Circus cyaneus</u> Accipiter cooperii

A. striatus
B. swainsoni

B. jamaicensisB. regalis

B. lagopus

Aquila chrysaetos Falco sparverius

F. mexicanus

Phasianus colchicus Rallus limicola

Porzana carolina

Gallinula chloropus

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# Birds (continued)

American coot Sandhill crane Black-bellied plover Snowy plover Semipalmated plover Killdeer Black-necked stilt American avocet Greater yellowlegs Lesser yellowlegs Willet Spotted sandpiper Whimbrel Long-billed curlew Marbled godwit Western sandpiper Least sandpiper Baird's sandpiper Pectoral sandpiper Dunlin Short-billed dowitcher Long-billed dowitcher Common snipe Wilson's phalarope Red-necked phalarope Bonaparte's gull Ring-billed gull California gull Herring gull Caspian tern Forster's tern Black tern Rock dove Mourning dove Common barn-owl Great horned owl Burrowing owl Short-eared owl Lesser nighthawk Belted kingfisher Northern flicker Black phoebe Say's phoebe Western kingbird Horned lark

Fulica americana Grus canadensis Pluvialis squatarola Charadrius alexandrinus C. semipalmatus C. vociferus Himantopus mexicanus Recurvirostra americana Tringa melanoleuca T. flavipes Catoptrophorus semipalmatus Actitus macularia Numenius phaeopus N. americanus Limosa fedoa Calidris mauri C. minutilla C. bairdii C. melanotos C. alpina Limnodromus griseus L. scolopaceus Gallinago gallinago Phalaropus tricolor P. fulicaria Larus philadelphia L. delawarensis L. californicus L. argentatus Sterna caspia S. forsteri Chidonias niger Columba livia Zenaida macroura Tyto alba Bubo virginianus Athene cunicularia Asio flammeus Chordeiles acutipennis Ceryle alcyon Colaptes auratus Sayornis nigricans S. saya Tyrannus verticalis Eremophila alpestris Tachycineta bicolor

Tree swallow

T. thalassina

Common Name<sup>a</sup>

Scientific Name

### Birds (continued)

Violet-green swallow Northern rough-winged swallow Cliff swallow Barn swallow Yellow-billed magpie American crow Marsh wren American robin Water pipit Loggerhead shrike European starling Yellow-rumped warbler Common yellowthroat Lark sparrow Savannah sparrow Grasshopper sparrow Song sparrow Lincoln's sparrow Golden-crowned sparrow White-crowned sparrow Dark-eyed junco Red-winged blackbird Tricolored blackbird Western meadowlark Yellow-headed blackbird Brewer's blackbird Brown-headed cowbird House finch House sparrow

Stelgidopteryx serripennis Hirundo pyrrhonota H. rustica Pica nuttailli Corvus brachrhynchos Cistothorus palustris Turdus migratorius Anthus spinoletta Lanius ludovicianus Sturnus vulgaris Dendroica coronata Geothlypis trichas Chondestes grammacus Passerculus sandwichensis Ammodramus savannarum Melospiza melodia M. lincolnii Zonotrichia atricapilla Z. leucophrys Junco hyemalis Agelaius phoeniceus A. tricolor Sturnella neglecta Xanthocephalus xanthocephalus Euphagus cyanocephalus Molothrus ater Carpodacus mexicanus Passer domesticus

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup>Nomenclature follows Laudenslayer and Grenfell (1983).



ORANA CE PROCESILES

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